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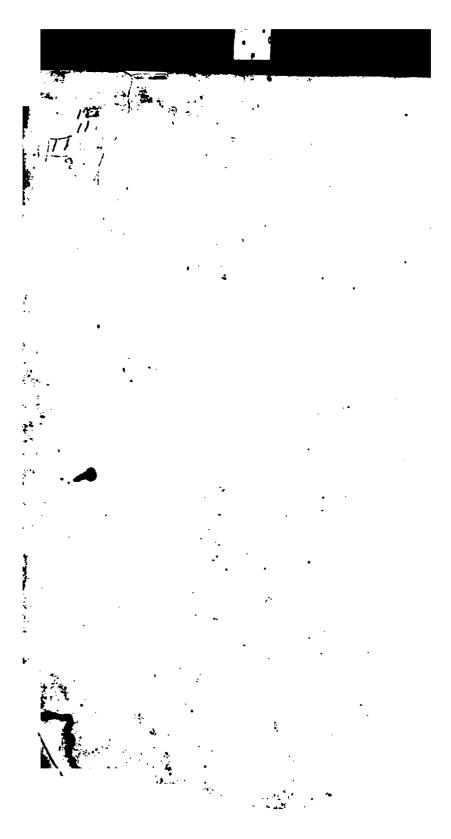
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The Youth, who, led by Wisports guiding Hand; Socks Tirrus & Temple, and her Law reveres: He, he alone, in Morrowr's Dome shall stand; Crowned with Rewards, Brais'd above his Veers. Recording Annals shall Jureserve his Same; Ind give his Virtues to simmortal KAME.

MT HE PRECEPT

A General Course of Education. WHEREIN

THE FIRST PRINCIPLES

O F

POLITE LEARNING

ARE LAID DOWN

In a Way most suitable for trying the Gensus and advancing the

Instruction of YOUTH.

IN TWELVE PARTS. Illustrated with MAPS and useful CUTS.

VIZ.

I. On READING, SPEAK- | VI. On DRAWING. ING, and WRITING LETTERS.

II. On ARITHMETIC, GEOMETRY, and Ar-CHITECTURE.

III. On GEOGRAPHY and ASTRONOMY.

IV. On CHRONOLOGY and HISTORY.

V. On RHETORIC and POETRY.

VII. On Logic.

VIII. On NATURAL His-TQAY.

IX: On Ethics, or Mo-RALITY.

X. On TRADE and Com-MERCE.

XI. On LAWS and Go-VERNMENT.

XII. On HUMAN LIFE and MANNERS.

The THIED EGITION, with Additions, and Improvements.

TWO VOLUMES. IN

FIRST VOLUME. THE

LONDON:

Printed for R. and J. Dodsery, at Tully's Head in Pall-mail-

M DCC LVIII.

TRANSFER FROM LENOX.



GEORGE R.

EORGE the Second, by the Grace of God, King of Great Brirain, France and Ireland, Defender of the Faith, &c. To all whom these Presents shall come, Greeting. Our Trusty and Well-Belowed Robert Dodsley Bookseller, bas by his Petition bumbly represented unto Us, that he is now printing a Practical Book for the Use of Schools in Two Volames Octavo, illustrated with Maps and useful Cuts, entituled, The PRECEPTOR, containing a General Course of Education, wherein the first Principles of POLITE LEARNING are laid down, in a way most faitable for trying the Genius, and advancing the Instruction Touth, in tenelve Parts: First, on Reading, Speaking, and Writing Letters; Second, on Geometry; Third, on Geography and Advancemy; Fourth, on Chronology and History; Firth, on Rhetoric and Poetry; Sixth, on Drawing; Seventh, on Logic; Righth, on Natural History; Ninth, on Ethics or Morality; Tenth, on Trade and Commerce; Eleventh, on Laws and Government; Twelfth, on Human Life and Manners: That the Petitioner bas been at great Expence and Trouble in procuring the several Parts of the faid Work, to be executed by Persons qualified to do them in the best manner, and the fole Right and Title to the Copy of the fame being wested in the Petitioner. Wherefore he has most humbly prayed Us to great him Our Royal Privilege and Licence for the fole printing, publishing and wending of the Said Work for the Term of Fourteen Years. We being willing to give all due Encouragement to a Work that seems to merit particular Regard, as it promises to be of great Use in that important Point, the Education of Youth, are graciously pleased to condescend to his Request. And we do therefore by these Presents, to condescend to bis Request. fo far as may be agreeable to the Statute in that behalf made and prowided, grant unto bim the Said Robert Dodsley, his Executors, Administrators and Assigns, Our Licence for the sole printing and publishing of the faid Work, for the Term of Fourteen Years, to be computed from the Date bereof, firitly forbidding all Our Subjects within Our Kingdoms and Dominions to reprint, or abridge the same, either in the like, or any Size or Manner what soever, or to import, buy, wend, atter or distribute any Copies thereof, reprinted beyond the Seas, during the aforefaid Term of Fourteen Years, without the Confent or Approbation of the said Robert Dodsley, his Executors, Administrators and Affigns, under their Hands and Seals first had and obtained, as they will answer the contrary at their Peril; nubereof the Commissioners, and other Officers of our Customs, the Master, Warden, and Company of Stationers, are to take Notice, that due Obedience may be rendered to Our Pleafure berein declared. Given at our Court at St. James's the Fourth Day of February 1747, in the Twenty-first Year of our Reign.

By His Majesty's Command.

CHESTERFIELD.



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N.A.



To His ROYAL HIGHNESS

Prince GEORGE.

SIR,



Beg Leave to approach Your ROYAL HIGHNESS with the First Principles of Knowledge and Polite Learning. And I

humbly trust, the Importance of the Precepts which I presume at the same Time to lay before your HIGHNESS, will atone for the Impropriety of their coming from me.

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DEDICATION.

As you are born to move in the highest and most extensive Sphere of Action, so your acquiring early the noblest Principles of Virtue, together with the clearest and most comprehensive Views of Men and Things, is of much more Importance, than if you were placed in any less exalted Rank of Life. The Happinels and Prosperity of a great, a free, and a powerful Nation, may hereafter depend in some measure on Your Virtues, Your Temper, Your personal Abilities and Dispositions: How important therefore is your Obligation to acquire and cultivate all useful Knowledge, all generous Sentiments, and benevolent Inclinations, in order to maintain your high Station with Dignity and Honour? By these Means you will command the Hearts of a whole People, promote the Happiness of a mighty Kingdom, and at the fame Time establish your own Glory, in the the highest Character a Mortal can suftain, the Character of a PATRIOT KING.

The Language of Truth, tho' most worthy the Ear of Princes, is that to which they are least accustom'd. In the future Progress of your Life you will be approach'd by few but fuch as have either some immediate Dependence on, or Expectations from you; and a Prince will hear from These, nothing but the Voice of Praise. It is therefore highly important, that the Voice of your own Heart do not contradict their Encomiums. For this Purpose may your ROYAL HIGHNESS employ this early and most proper Season of your Life, in adorning your Mind with useful Knowledge, in warming your Heart with the Love of Virtue, and in cultivating in your Breast that truly Royal Disposition of encouraging and rewarding Merit. May you never suffer the false Charms of

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If this Introduction to Polite Learning, which I here beg Leave to lay at your ROYAL HIGHNESS'S Feet, and which sues for the Honour of your Patronage, shall have the good Fortune to be thought in any Degree worthy the high Distinction to which it aspires; the Pleasure of having afforded the least Assistance to your ROYAL HIGHNESS in the Acquisition of Knowledge, and of having been in any Degree serviceable to the Public in so important a Point as the Education of Youth, will give me the highest Satisfaction, as I shall think

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Member of Society.

May your ROYAL HIGHNESS, as you grow in Years, advance and improve in every Princely Endowment! And as you are, next to your ROYAL FATHER, the Hope and Expectation of these united Kingdoms; so may you live to be, after Him, their Guardian and their Glory. I am, with great Respect,

SIR,

Your ROYAL HIGHNESS'S

Anno 1748.

Most Humble and

Obedient Servant,

R. Dodsley.

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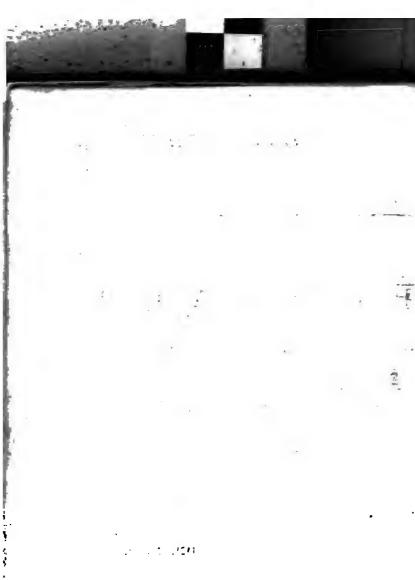
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Every Man, who has been engaged in Teaching, knows with how much Difficulty youthful Minds are confined to close Application, and how readily they deviate to any thing. rather than attend to that which is imposed as a Task. That this Disposition, when it becomes inconsistent with the Forms of Education, is to be checked, will readily be granted; but fince, though it may be in some Degree obviated, it cannot wholly be suppressed, it is surely rational to turn it to Advantage, by taking care that the Mind shall never want Objects on which its Faculties may be usefully employed. It is not impossible, that this restless Desire of Novelty, which gives fo much Trouble to the Teacher, may be often the Struggle of the Understanding starting from that, to which it is not by Nature adapted, and travelling in Search of fomething on which it may fix with greater Satisfaction. For without supposing each Man, particularly

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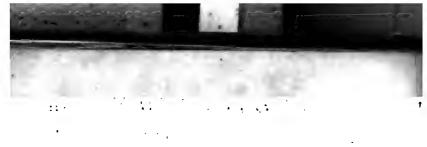
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ziv PREFACE.

This Search was not wholly without Success; for two Authors were found, whose Performances might be admitted with little Alteration. But so widely does this Plan differ from all others, so much has the State of many kinds of Learning been changed, or so unfortunately have they hitherto been cultivated, that none of the other Subjects were explained in such a Manner as was now required; and therefore neither Care nor Expence has been spared to obtain new Lights, and procure to this Book the Merit of an Original.

With what Judgment the Design has been formed, and with what Skill it has been executed, the Learned World is now to determine. But before Sentence shall pass, it is proper to explain more fully what has been intended, that Cenfure may not be incurred by the Omission of that which the original Plan did not comprehend; to declare more particularly who they are to whose Instruction these Treatises pretend, that a Charge of Arrogance and Presumption may be obviated; to lay down the Reasons which directed the Choice of the several Subjects; and to explain more minutely the Manner in which each particular Part of these Volumes is to be used.

The Title has already declared, that these Volumes are particularly intended for the Use of Schools, and therefore it has been the Care of the Authors to explain the several Sciences, of which they have treated, in the most familiar

miliar Manner; for the Mind used only to common Expressions, and inaccurate Ideas, does not fuddenly conform itself to scholastic Modes of Reasoning, or conceive the nice Distinctions of a fubtile Philosophy, and may be properly initiated in speculative Studies by an Introduction like this, in which the Groffness of vulgar Conception is avoided, without the Observation of Metaphyfical Exactness. It is observed, that in the Course of the natural World no Change is instantaneous, but all its Vicissitudes are gradual and flow; the Motions of Intellect proceed in the like imperceptible Progression, and proper Degrees of Transition from one Study to another are therefore necessary; but let it not be charged upon the Writers of this Book, that they intended to exhibit more than the Dawn of Knowledge, or pretended to raise in the Mind any nobler Product than the Bloffoms of Science, which more powerful Institutions may ripen into Fruit

For this Reason it must not be expected, that in the following Pages should be found a complete Circle of the Sciences; or that any Authors, now deservedly esteemed, should be rejected to make way for what is here offered. It was intended by the Means of these Precepts, not to deck the Mind with Ornaments, but to protect it from Nakedness; not to enrich it with Affluence, but to supply it with Necessaries. The Enquiry therefore was not what Degrees of Knowledge are desirable, but what

PREFACE.

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are in most Stations of Life indispensably required; and the Cheice was determined not by the Splendor of any Part of Literature, but by the Extent of its Use, and the Inconvenience which its Neglect was likely to produce.

I. The Prevalence of this Consideration appears in the sirst Part, which is appropriated to the humble Purposes of teaching to Read, and Speak, and Write Letters; an Attempt of little Magnificence, but in which no Man needs to blush for having employed his Time, if Honour be estimated by Use. For Precepts of this Kind, however neglected, extend their Importance as far as Men are found who communicate their Thoughts one to another; they are equally useful to the highest and the lowest; they may often contribute to make Ignorance less inelegant; and may it not be observed, that they are frequently wanted for the Embellishment even of Learning?

In order to shew the proper use of this Part, which contists of various Exemplifications of such Differences of Stile as require correspondent Diversities of Pronunciation, it will be proper to inform the Scholar, that there are in general three Forms of Stile, each of which demands its particular Mode of Elocution: the Familiar, the Schoon, and the Packetic. That in the Familiar, he that reads is only to talk with a Paper in his Hand, and to indulge himself in all the lighter Liberties

Liberties of Voice, as when he reads the common Articles of a News-Paper, or a curfory Letter of Intelligence or Bufiness. That the Solemn Stile, fuch as that of a ferious Narrative, exacts an uniform Steadings of Speech, equal, clear, and calm. That for the Pathetic, fuch as an animated Oration, it is necessary the Voice be regulated by the Sense, varying and rifing with the Passions. These Rules, which are the most general, admit a great Number of subordinate Obfervations; which must be particularly adapted to every Scholar; for it is observable, that though very few read well, yet every Man errs in a different Way. But let one Remark never be omitted: inculcate strongly to every Scholar the Danger of copying the Voice of another; an Attempt, which though it has been often repeated, is always unfuccefsful.

The Importance of writing Letters with Propriety justly claims to be confider'd with Care, fince next to the Power of pleasing with his Presence, every Man would wish to be able to give Delight at a Distance. This great Art should be diligently taught, the rather, because of those Letters which are most useful, and by which the general Business of Life is transacted. there are no Examples easily to be found. It seeins the general Fault of those who undertake this Part of Education, that they propose for the Exercise of their Scholars, Occasions which rarely happen; such as Congratulations and Condolances, and neglect those without which Life cannot Vol. I. proceed.

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proceed. It is possible to pass many Years without the Necessity of writing Panegyrics or Epithalamiums; but every Man has frequent Occasion to state a Contract, or demand a Debt, or make a Narrative of some minute Incidents of common Life. On these Subjects therefore young Persons should be taught to think justly, and write clearly, neatly, and succinctly, lest they come from School into the World without any Acquaintance with common Affairs, and stand idle Spectators of Mankind, in Expectation that some great Event will give them an Opportunity to exert their Rhetoric.

II. The fecond Place is affigned to Geometry; on the Usefulness of which it is unnecessary to expatiate in an Age, when Mathematical Studies have fo much engaged the Attention of all Classes of Men. This Treatise, is one of those which have been borrowed, being a Translation from the Work of Mr. LeClerc; and is not intended as more than the first Initiation. In delivering the fundamental Principles of Geometry, it is necessary to proceed by slow Steps, that each Proposition may be fully understood before another is attempted. For which Purpose it is not sufficient, that when a Question is asked in the Words of the Book, the Scholar likewise can in the Words of the Book return the proper Anfwer; for this may be only an Act of Memory, not of Understanding; it is always proper to vary the Words of the Question, to place the Proposition in different Points of View, and to require of the Learner an Explanation in his nwo

own Terms, informing him however when they are improper. By this Method the Scholar will become cautious and attentive, and the Master will know with Certainty the Degree of his Proficiency. Yet, though this Rule is generally right. I cannot but recommend a Precept of Pardie's, that when the Student cannot be made to comprehend some particular Part, it should be, for that Time, laid aside, till new Light shall arise from subsequent Observation.

When this Compendium is completely underflood, the Scholar may proceed to the Perusal of Tacquet, afterwards of Euclid himself, and then of the modern Improvers of Geometry, such as Barreto, Keil, and Sir Isaac Newton.

in III. The Necessity of some Acquaintance with Geography and Astronomy will not be difputed. If the Pupil is born to the Ease of a large Fortune, no Part of Learning is more necessary to him, than the Knowledge of the Situation of Nations, on which their Interests generally depend; if he is dedicated to any of the Learned Professions, it is scarcely possible that he will not be obliged to apply himself in some Part of his Life to these Studies, as no other Branch of Literature can be fully comprehended without them; if he is defigned for the Arts of Commerce, or Agriculture, some general Acquaintance with these Sciences will be found extremely useful to him; in a word, no Studies afford more extensive, more wonderful, or more pleasing Scenes; and therefore b 2



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there can be no Ideas impressed upon the Soul, which can more conduce to its suture Entertainment.

In the Pursuit of these Sciences it will be proper to proceed with the same Gradation and Caution as in Geometry. And it is always of Use to decorate the Nakedness of Science, by interspersing such Observations and Narratives, as may amuse the Mind and excite Curiosity. Thus, in explaining the State of the Polar Regions, it might be fit to read the Narrative of the Englishmen that wintered in Greenland, which will make young Minds sufficiently curious after the Cause of such a Length of Night, and Intenseness of Cold; and many Stratagems of the same Kind might be practised to interest them in all Parts of their Studies, and call in their Passions to animate their Enquiries. When they have read this Treatife, it will be proper to recommend to them Varenius's Geography, and Gregory's Ailronomy.

IV. The Study of Chronology and History feems to be one of the most natural Delights of the Human Mind. It is not easy to live without enquiring by what Means every thing was brought into the State in which we now behold it, or without finding in the Mind some Desire of being informed concerning the Generations of Mankind, that have been in Possession of the World before us, whether they

they were better or worfe than ourselves; or what good or evil has been derived to us from their Schemes, Practices, and Institutions. These are Enquiries which History alone can fatisfy; and Hiltory can only be made intelligible by some Knowledge of Chronology, the Science by which Events are ranged in their Order, and the Periods of Computation are fettled; and which therefore affift the Memory by Method, and enlighten the Judgment, by shewing the Dependence of onc Transaction on another. Accordingly it should be diligently inculcated to the Scholar, that unless he fixes in his Mind some Idea of the Time in which each Man of Eminence lived, and each Action was performed, with fome Part of the contemporary History of the rest of the World, he will confume his Life in useless reading, and darken his Mind with a Croud of unconnected Events, his Memory will be perplexed with diftant Transactions resembling one another, and his Reflections be like a Dream in a Fever, busy and turbulent, but confused and indistinct.

The Technical Part of Chronology, or the Art of computing and adjusting Time, as it is very difficult, so it is not of absolute Necessity, but should however be taught, so far as it can be learned without the Loss of those Hours which are required for Attainments of nearer Concern. The Student may join with this Treatise Le Clerc's Compendium of History, and afterwards may, for the Historical Part of Chronology,

nology, procure Helvicus's and Isaacson's Tables; and if he is desirous of attaining the technical Part, may first peruse Holder's Account of Time, Hearne's Ductor Historicus, Strauchius, the first Part of Petavius's Rationarium Temporum; and at length Scaliger de Emendatione Temporum. And for Instruction in the Method of his Historical Studies, he may consult Hearne's Ductor Historicus, Wheare's Lectures, Rawlinson's Directions for the Study of History: and for Ecclesiastical History, Cave and Dupin, Baronius and Fleury.

V. Rhetoric and Poetry supply Life with its highest intellectual Pleasures; and in the Hands of Virtue are of great Use for the Impression of just Sentiments and Recommendation of illustrious Examples. In the Practice of these great Arts, fo much more is the Gift of Nature than the Effect of Education, that nothing is attempted here but to teach the Mind some general Heads of Observation, to which the beautiful Passages of the best Writers may commonly be reduced. In the Use of this it is not proper, that the Teacher should confine himself to the Examples before him, for by that Method he will never enable his Pupils to make just Application of the Rules; but having inculcated the true Meaning of each Figure, he should require them to exemplify it by their own Observations, pointing to them the Poem, or, in longer Works, the Book or Canto in which an Example may be found, and leaving them to discover the particular Passage

PREFACE. 'xxiii by the Light of the Rules which they have lately learned.

may consult Quintilian and Vossius's Rhetoric; the Art of Poetry will be best learned from Bossiu and Bobours in French, together with Dryden's Essays and Presaces, the critical Papers of Addison, Spence on Pope's Odyssey, and Trapp's Pratectiones Poeticæ; but a more accurate and Philosophical Account is expected from a Commentary upon Aristotle's Art of Poetry, with which the Literature of this Nation will be in a short Time augmented.

VI. With regard to the Practice of Drawing, it is not necessary to give any Directions, the Use of the Treatife being only to teach the proper Method of imitating the Figures which are annex'd. It will be proper to incite the Scholars to Industry, by shewing in other Books the Use of the Art, and informing them how much it affifts the Apprehension, and relieves the Memory; and if they are oblig'd sometimes to write Descriptions of Engines, Utenfils, or any complex Pieces of Workmanship, they will more fully apprehend the Necessity of an Expedient which so happily supplies the Defects of Language, and enables the Eye to receive what cannot be conveyed to the Mind any other Way. When they have read this Treatise and practis'd upon these Figures, their Theory may be improved by the Jesuit's b 4

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Perspective, and their manual Operations by other Figures which may be easily procured.

VII. Logic, or the Art of arranging and connecting Ideas, of forming and examining Arguments, is univerfally allow'd to be an Attainment in the utmost Degree worthy the Ambition of that Being, whose highest Honour is to be endued with Reason; but it is doubted, whether that Ambition has yet been gratified, and whether the Powers of Ratiocination have been much improved by any Systems of Art or methodical Institutions. The Logic which for so many Ages kept Possession of the Schools, has at last been condemned as a mere Art of Wrangling, of very little Use in the Pursuit of Truth; and later Writers have contented themselves with giving an Account of the Operations of the Mind, marking the various Stages of her Progress, and giving some general Rules for the Regulation of her Conduct. The Method of these Writers is here followed; but without a servile Adherence to any, and with Endeavours to make Improvements upon all. This Work, however laborious, has yet been fruitless, if there be Truth in an Observation very frequently made, that Logicians out of the School do not reason better than Men unaffisted by those Lights which their Science is supposed to bestow. It is not to be doubted but that Logicians may be sometimes overborn by their Passions, or blinded by their Prejudices; and that a Man may reason ill, as he may act ill, not because he does not know what is right, but becauso cause he does not regard it; yet it is no more the Fault of his Art that it does not direct him when his Attention is withdrawn from it, than it is the Defect of his Sight that he misses his Way when he shuts his Eyes. Against this Cause of Error there is no Provision to be made, otherwife than by inculcating the Value of Truth, and the Necessity of conquering the Passions. Logic may likewise fail to produce its Effects upon common Occasions, for want of being frequently and familiarly applied, till its Precepts may direct the Mind imperceptibly, as the Fingets of a Musician are regulated by his Knowledge of the Tune. This Readiness of Recollection is only to be procured by frequent Impression; and therefore it will be proper when Logic has been once learned, the Teacher take frequent occasion, in the most easy and familiar Conversation, to observe when its Rules are preferved, and when they are broken, and that afterwards he read no Authors, without exacting of his Pupil an Account of every remarkable Exemplification or Breach of the Laws of Reasoning.

When this System has been digested, if it be thought necessary to proceed farther in the Study of Method, it will be proper to recommend Crousaz, Watts, Le Clerk, Wolfius, and Locke's Essay on Human Understanding; and if there be imagined any Necessity of adding the Peripatetic Logic, which has been perhaps condemned without a candid Trial, it will be convenient

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venient to proceed to Sanderson, Wallis, Crackan-thorp and Aristotle.

VIII. To excite a Curiofity after the Works of God, is the chief Design of the small Specimen of Natural Hifter; inferted in this Collection; which. however, may be sufficient to put the Mind in Motion, and in some measure to direct its Steps; but its Effects may easily be improved by a Philosophic Master, who will every Day find a thousand Opportunities of turning the Attention of his Scholars to the Contemplation of the Objects that furround them, of laying open the wonderful Art with which every Part of the Universe is formed, and the Providence which governs the Vegetable and Animal Creation. He may lay before them, the Religious Philosopher, Ray, Derham's Physico-Theology, together with the Spectacle de la Nature; and in time recommend to their Perusal, Rondoletius and Aldronandus.

IX. But how much soever the Reason may be strengthened by Logic, or the Conceptions of the Mind enlarged by the Study of Nature, it is necessary the Man be not suffered to dwell upon them so long as to neglect the Study of himself, the Knowledge of his own Station in the Ranks of Being, and his various Relations to the innumerable Multitudes which surround him, and with which his Maker has ordained him to be united for the Reception and Communication of Happiness. To confider

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fider these aright is of the greatest Importance, since from these arise Duties which he cannot neglect. Ethics or Morality, therefore, is one of the Studies which ought to begin with the first Climpse of Reason, and only end with Life itself. Other Acquisitions are merely temporary Benefits, except as they contribute to illustrate the Knowledge, and confirm the Practice of Morality and Piety, which extend their Influence beyond the Grave, and increase our Happiness through endless Duration.

This great Science therefore must be inculcated with Care and Affiduity, such as its Importance ought to incite in reasonable Minds; and for the Prosecution of this Design, fit Opportunities are always at hand. As the Importance of Logic is to be shewn, by detecting false Arguments, the Excellence of Morality is to be displayed, by proving the Deformity, the Reproach, and the Misery of all Deviations from it. Yet it is to be remembered, that the Laws of mere Morality are of no coercive Power; and however they may by Conviction of their Fitness please the Reasoner in the Shade, when the Passions stagnate without Impulse, and the Appetites are secluded from their Objects they will be of little force against the Ardour of Defire, or the Vehemence of Rage, amidst the Pleasures and Tumults of the World. counteract the Power of Temptations, Hope must be excited by the Prospect of Rewards, and Fear by the Expectation of Punishment;

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and Virtue may owe her Panegyrics to Morality, but must derive her Authority from Religion.

When therefore the Obligations of Morality are taught, let the Sanctions of Christianity never be forgotten; by which it will be shewn, that they give Strength and Lustre to each other, Religion will appear to be the Voice of Reason, and Morality the Will of God. Under this Article must be recommended Tully's Offices, Grotius, Puffendorff, Cumberland's Laws of Nature, and the excellent Mr. Addison's Moral and Religious Essays.

X. Thus far the Work is composed for the Use of Scholars, merely as they are Men. But it was thought necessary to introduce something that might be particularly adapted to that Country for which it is designed; and therefore a Discourse has been added upon Trade and Commerce, of which it becomes every Man of this Nation to understand at least the general Principles, as it is impossible that any should be high or low enough, not to be in some degree affected by their Declension or Prosperity. is therefore necessary that it should be univerfally known among us, what Changes of Property are advantageous, or when the Ballance of Trade is on our Side; what are the Products or Manufactures of other Countries: and how far one Nation may in any Species of Traffic obtain or preserve Superiority over another.

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ther. The Theory of Trade is yet but little understood, and therefore the Practice is often without real Advantage to the Public; But it might be carried on with more general Success, if its Principles were better considered; and to excite that Attention, is our chief Design. To the Perusal of this Book may succeed that of Mun upon foreign Trade, Sir Josiah Child, Locke upon Coin, Davenant's Treatises, the British Merchant, Dictionaire de Commerce, and for an Abstract or Compendium Gee, and an Improvement that may hereaster be made upon his Plan.

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XI. The Principles of Laws and Government, come next to be confidered; by which Men are taught to whom Obedience is due, for what it is paid, and in what degree it may be justly required. This Knowledge by peculiar Necessity constitutes a Part of the Education of an Englishman, who professes to obey his Prince according to the Law, and who is himself a secondary Legislator, as he gives his Consent by his Representative, to all the Laws by which he is bound, and has a Right to petition the great Council of the Nation, whenever he thinks they are deliberating upon an Act detrimental to the Interest of the Community. This is therefore a Subject to which the Thoughts of a young Man ought to be directed; and that he may obtain fuch Knowledge as may qualify him to act and judge as one of a free People, let him be directed to add to this Introduction, Fortescue's Trea-

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Treatifes. N Bacon's Historical Discourse on the Laws and Government of England, Temple's Introduction, Locke on Government, Zouch's Elementa Juris Civilis, Plato Redivivus, Gurdon's History of Parliaments, and Hooker's Ecclesiastical Posity.

XII. Having thus supplied the young Student with Knewledge, it remains now, that he learns its Application; and that thus qualified to act his Part, he be at last taught to chuse it. For this Purpose a Section is added upon Humani Life and Manners; in which he is cautioned against the Danger of indulging his Passions; of vitating his Habirs, and degraving his Sentiments. He is instructed in these Points by three Fables, two of which were of the highest Authority, in the ancient Pagan World. But at this he is not to rest, for if he expects to be Wise and Happy, he must diligently study the Scriptures of God.

Such is the Book now proposed, as the first Initiation into the Knowledge of Things, which has been thought by many to be too long delayed in the present Forms of Education. Whether the Complaints be not often ill-grounded, may perhaps be disputed; but it is at least reasonable to believe, that greater Proficiency might sometimes be made; that real Knowledge might be more early communicated; and that Children might be allowed, without Injury to Health, to spend many of these Hours upon useful Employ-

Employments, which are generally lost in Idleness and Play; therefore the Public will furely encourage an Experiment, by which, if it fails, nobody is hurt, and if it succeeds, all the future Ages of the World may find Advantage : which may eradicate or prevent Vice, by turning to a better Use those Moments in which it is or indulged; and in some Sense lengthen by teaching Posterity to enjoy those Years have hitherto been lost. The Success, and even the Trial of this Experiment, will dependumpon those to whom the Care of our Kouth is committed; and a due Sense of the Importance of their Trust, will easily prevail upon them to encourage a Work which pursues the Defign of improving Education. If any part of the following Performance shall upon Trial be found capable of Amendment, if any thing can be added or alter'd, so as to render the Attainment of Knowledge more easy; the Editor will be extremely obliged to any Gentleman, particularly those who are engaged in the Business of Teaching, for such Hints or Observations as may tend towards the Improvement, and will spare neither Expence nor Trouble in making the best use of their Informations.

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PARTI.

ON

READING, SPEAKING, and WRITING LETTERS.



Vol. I.

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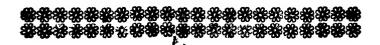
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PARTI.

ON

READING, SPEAKING, and WRITING LETTERS.



Vol. I.

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PART I. INTRODUCTION.*

Power and Importance of which is greater than is generally thought; infomuch that Eloquence takes its Name from it.

The great Design and End of a good Pronunciation is, to make the Ideas seem to come from the Heart; and then they will not fail to excite the Attention and Affections of those who hear us.

The Design of this Essay is to shew

First, What a bad Pronunciation is, and how to avoid it.

Secondly, What a good Pronunciation is, and how to attain it.

I. Now the feveral Faults of Pronunciation are these following.

1. When the Voice is too loud.

This is very disagreeable to the Hearer, and very inconvenient to the Speaker.

This contains the Substance of a late excellent Essay on Elocution, published fince the first Edition of the Preceptor, by the Reverend Mr. Mason of Cheshunt in Hertfordshire; which I have been persuaded by several eminent Schoolmasters, to presix by way of Introduction to the Lessons on Reading and Speaking.

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It will be very disagreeable to the *Hearers*, if they be Perfons of good Taste: who will always look upon it to be the

Effect either of Ignorance or Affectation.

Besides, an overstrained Voice is very inconvenient to the Speaker, as well as disgussful to judicious Hearers. It exhausts his Spirits to no Purpose. And takes from him the proper Management and Modulation of his Voice according to the Sense of his Subject. And, what is worst of all, it naturally leads him into a Tone.

Every Man's Voice indeed should fill the Place where he speaks; but if it exceed its natural Key, it will be neither sweet, nor soft, nor agreeable, because he will not be able

to give every Word its proper and distinguishing Sound.

2. Another Fault in Pronunciation is, when the Voice is too low.

This is not so inconvenient to the Speaker, but is as disagreeable to the Hearer, as the other Extreme. It is always offensive to an Audience to observe any thing in the Reader or Speaker that looks like Indolence or Inattention. The Hearer will never be affected whilst he sees the Speaker in-

different.

The Art of governing the Voice consists a good deal in dexterously avoiding these two Extremes: At least, this ought to be first minded. And for a general Rule to direct you herein, I know of none better than this, viz. carefully to preserve the Key of your Voice; and at the same time, to adapt the Elevation and Strength of it to the Condition and Number of the Place you speak to, and the Nature of the Place you speak in. It would be altogether as ridiculous in a General who is haranguing an Army to speak in a low and languid Voice, as in a Person who reads a Chapter in a Family to speak in a loud and eager one.

3. Another Fault in Pronunciation is, a thick, hasty, chat-

tering Voice.

When a Person mumbles, or (as we say) clips or swallows his Words, that is, leaves out some Syllables in the long Words, and never pronounces some of the short ones at all; but hurries on without any Care to be heard distinctly, or to give his Words their sull Sound, or his Hearers the sull Sense of them.

This is often owing to a Defect in the Organs of Speech, or a too great Flutter of the animal Spirits; but oftener to a bad Habit uncorrected.

Demostheres, the greatest Orator Greece ever produced, had, it is faid, nevertheless three natural Impediments in Pronunciation;

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ciation; all which he conquered by invincible Labour and Perseverance. One was a Weakness of Voice; which he cured by frequently declaiming on the Sca-Shore, amidst the Noise of the Waves. Another was a Shortness of Breath: which he mended by repeating his Orations as he walked up a Hill. And the other was the Fault 1 am speaking of; a thick mumbling Way of speaking; which he broke himself of by declaiming with Pebbles in his Mouth.

4. Another Fault in Pronuncation is, when Persons speak

too quick.

This Manner of reading may do well enough when we are examining Leafes, peruling Indentures, or reciting Acts of Parliament, where there is always a great Superfluity of Words: or in reading a News-Paper, where there is but little Matter that deserves our Attention; but it is very improper in reading Books of Devotion and Instruction, and especially the sacred Scriptures, where the Solemnity of the Subject, or the Weight of the Sense, demands a particular Regard.

The great Disadvantage which attends this Manner of Pronunciation is, that the Hearer loses the Benefit of more than half the good Things he hears, and would fain remember, but cannot. And a Speaker should always have a Regard to the Memory as well as the Understanding of his Hearers.

5. It is also a Fault to speak too slow.

Some are apt to read in a heavy, droning, sleepy Way; and through mere Carelessinets make Paules at improper Places. This is very difagreeable. But to hemm, hauk, fneeze,

yawn, or cough, between the Periods, is more fo.

A too flow Elocution is most faulty in reading Trifles that do not require Attention. It then becomes tedious. A Perfon that is addicted to this flow Way of speaking, should always take care to reward his Hearer's Patience with important Sentiments, and compensate the Want of Words by a Weight of Thought.

But a too flow Elocution is a Fault very rarely to be found, unless in aged People, and those who naturally speak so in common Conversation. And in these, if the Pronunciation be in all other Respects just, decent, and proper; and especially if the Subject be weighty or intricate, it is very excufable.

6. An irregular or uneven Voice, is a great Fault in

reading.

That is, when the Voice rifes and falls by Fits and Starts, or when it is elevated or depressed unnaturally or unseason-

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ably, without Regard to Sense or Stops; or always beginning a Sentence with a high Voice, and concluding it with a low one, or vice versa; or always beginning and concluding it with the same Key. Opposite to this is

7. A flat, dull, uniform, Tone of Voice, without Emphasis or Cadence, or any Regard to the Sense or Subject of what

is read.

This is a Habit, which Children, who have been used to read their Lessons by way of Task, are very apt to fall into, and retain as they grow up. Such a Monotony as Attorneys Clerks read in when they examine an engrossed Deed. This is a great Inselicity when it becomes habitual; because it deprives the Hearer of the greatest Part of the Benefit or Advantage he might receive by a close Attention to the weighty and interesting Parts of the Subject, which should always be distinguished or pointed out by the Pronunciation. For a just Pronunciation is a good Commentary: And therefore no Person ought to read a Chapter or a Psalm in Public, before he hath carefully read it over to himself once or twice in private. But

Laftly, the greatest and most common Fault of all, is read-

ing with a Tone.

No Habit is more easy to be contracted than this, or more hard to be conquered. This unnatural Tone in reading and speaking is very various; but whatever it be, it is always difgustful to Persons of Delicacy and Judgment.

Some have a womanish squeaking Tone; which Persons whose Voices are shrill and weak, and over-strained, are very

apt to fall into.

Some have a finging or canting Note; and others affume a high, fwelling, theatrical Tone; who being ambitious of the Fame of fine Orators, lay too much Emphasis on every Sentence, and thereby transgress the Rules of true Oratory.

Some affect an awful and striking Tone, attended with folemn Grimace, as if they would move you with every Word, whether the Weight of the Subject bear them out or not. This is what Persons of a gloomy or melancholy Cast

of Mind are most apt to give into.

Some have a set, uniform Tone of Voice; which I have already taken notice of. And others, an odd, whimsical, whining Tone, peculiar to themselves, and not to be described; only that it is laying the Emphasis on Words which do not require or deserve it.

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These are the most common Faults of a bad Pronunciation. Our next Enquiry is

II. How to avoid them.

To this End the few following Rules may be of Service.

I. If you would not read in too loud or too low a Voice. consider whether your Voice be naturally too low or too loud; and correct it accordingly in your ordinary Conversation: by which means you will be better able to correct it in reading. If it be too low, converse with those that are deaf; if too loud, with those whose Voices are low. Begin your Periods with an even moderate Voice, that you may have the Command of

it, to raise or fall it as the Subject requires.

2. To cure a thick confused cluttering Voice, accustom yourself, both in Conversation and Reading, to pronounce every Word distinct and clear. Observe with what Deliberation some converse and read, and how full a Sound they give to every Word; and imitate them. Do not affect to contract your Words, (as some do) or run two into one. This may do very well in Conversation, or in reading familiar Dialogues, but is not so decent in grave and solemn Subjects; especially in reading the facred Scriptures.

It appears from Demosthenes's Case, that this Fault of Pronunciation cannot be cured without much Difficulty, nor will you find his Remedy effectual without Pains and Perseverance.

3. To break a Habit of reading too fast, attend diligently to the Sense, Weight, and Propriety of every Sentence you read, and of every emphatical Word in it. This will not only be an Advantage to yourfelf, but a double one to your Hearers; for it will at once give them Time to do the same, and excite their Attention when they see yours is fixed. A solemn Pause after a weighty Thought is very beautiful and striking. — A well-timed Stop gives as much Grace to Speech as it does to Music. - Imagine that you are reading to Perfons of flow and unready Conceptions; and measure not your Hearer's Apprehension by your own. If you do, you may possibly out-run it. And as in reading you are not at liberty to repeat your Words and Sentences, that should engage you to be very deliberate in pronouncing them, that their Sense may not be loft. The Ease and Advantage that will arise both to the Reader and Hearer, by a free, full, and deliberate Pronunciation, is hardly to be imagined.

I need lay down no Rules to avoid a too flow Pronunciation;

that being a Fault which few are guilty of.

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4. To cure an uneven, defultory Voice, take care that you do not begin your Periods either in too high or too low a Key; for that will necessarily lead you to an unnatural and improper Variation of it. Have a careful Regard to the Nature and Quantity of your Points, and the Length of your Periods; and keep your Mind intent on the Sense, Subject, and Spirit of your Author.

The same Directions are necessary to avoid a Monetony in Pronunciation, or a dull, set, uniform Tone of Voice. For if your Mind be but attentive to the Sense of your Subject, you will naturally manage and modulate your Voice according to

the Nature and Importance of it.

Laftly, To avoid all Kinds of unnatural and disagreeable Tones, the only Rule is, to endeavour to speak with the same Ease and Freedom as you would do on the same Subject in You hear nobody converse in a Tone; private Conversation. unless they have the Brogue of some other Country, or have got into a Habit (as some have) of altering the natural Key of their Voice when they are talking of some serious Subject in Religion. But I can see no Reason in the World, that when in common Conversation we speak in a natural Voice with proper Accent and Emphasis, yet as soon as we begin to read, or talk of Religion, or speak in Public, we should immediately assume a stiff, aukward, unnatural Tone. If we are indeed deeply affected with the Subject we read or talk of, the Voice will naturally vary according to the Paffion excited; but if we vary it unnaturally, only to feem affected, or with a Design to affect others, it then becomes a Tone, and is offenfive.

In reading then attend to your Subject, and deliver it just in fuch a Manner as you would do if you were talking of it. This is the great, general, and most important Rule of all; which, if carefully observed, will correct not only this, but almost all the other Faults of a bad Pronunciation; and give you an easy, decent, graceful Delivery, agreeable to all the Rules of a right Elocution. For however apt we are to transgress them in reading, we follow them naturally and easily enough in Conversation. And Children will tell a Story with all the natural Graces and Beauties of Pronunciation, however aukwardiy they may read the same out of a Book.

Secondly,

Let the Tone and Sound of your Foire in reading he the fame as it is in speaking, and do not affect to change thus natural and easy

Secondly, Let us enquire what a good Pronunciation is, and how to attain it.

I. A good Pronunciation in reading, is the Art of managing and governing the Voice so as to express the full Sense and Spirit of your Author, in that just, decent, and graceful Manner, which will not only instruct but affect the Hearers; and will not only raise in them the same Ideas he intended to convey, but the same Passions he really felt. This is the great End of reading to others, and this End can only be attained by a proper and just Pronunciation.

And hence we may learn wherein a good Pronunciation in fpeaking confifts; which is nothing but a natural, easy, and graceful Variation of the Voice, suitable to the Nature and

Importance of the Sentiments we deliver.

A good Pronunciation in both these Respects is more easily attained by some than others; as some can more readily enter into the Sense and Sentiments of an Author, and more easily deliver their own, than others can; and at the same time have a more happy Facility of expressing all the proper Variations and Modulations of the Voice than others have. Thus Persons of a quick Apprehension, and brisk Flow of animal Spirits (setting aside all Impediments of the Organs) have generally a more lively, just, and natural Elocution, than Persons of a slow Perception and a stegmatick Cast. However, it may in a good Degree be attained by every one that will carefully attend to and practise those Rules that are proper to acquire it.

And to this End the Observation of the following Rules is

necessarv

1. Have a particular Regard to your Pauses, Emphasis, and Cadence.

1. To your Pauses

And with respect to this, you will in a good measure in reading be directed by the Points: but not perfectly; for there are but sew Books that are exactly pointed.

The common Stops or Points are these.

A Comma (,), Semi-colon (;), Colon (:), Period (.), Interrogation (?), and Admiration (!).

But

easy Sound authorizable sou speak, for a strange, new, aukavard Tone, as some do author they begin to read; which about almost persuade our Ears, that the peaker, and the Reader, were two different Persons, if our Eyes did not tell us the contrary.

WATES'S Art of Reading.

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But beside these, there are sour more Notes or Distinctions of Pause, viz. 2 Parenthesis (()); which requires the Pause of a Comma at least, and sometimes a Semi-colon after it. A Double Period, or Blank Line, (—); which denotes the Pause of two Periods, or half a Paragraph. 3. A Paragraph 3. A Paragraph or Break; when the Line is broke or left imperfect, and the next begins under the fecond or third Letter of the preceding Line; and denotes the Paule of two double Periods. 4. A double Paragraph, that is, when the next Line not only begins shorter than the preceding, but leaves the Space of a whole Line vacant between them; which shews that the Voice is to rest during the Time of two Paragraphs.

These Points serve two Purposes. 1. To distinguish the Sense of the Author. 2. To direct the Pronunciation of the

Reader.

You are not to fetch your Breath (if it can be avoided) till you come to the Period or Full Stop; but a discernable Pause is to be made at every one, according to its proper Quantity of Duration.

A Comma stops the Voice while we may privately tell one; a

Semi-colon two; a colon three; and a Period four.

Where the Periods are very long, you may take Breath at a Colon or Semi-colon; and sometimes at a Comma, but never where there is no Stop at all. And that you may not be under a Necessity to take fresh Breath before you come to a proper Pause, it will be proper to look forward to the Close of the Sentence, and measure the Length of it with your Eye before you begin it; that if it be long, you may take in a fufficient Supply of Breath to carry you to the End of it.

To break a Habit of taking Breath too often in reading, accustom yourself to read long Periods, such (for Instance) as the

fixteen first Lines in Milton's Paradise Lost.

But after all, there is so much License admitted, and so much Irregularity introduced, into the modern Method of Punctation, that it is become a very imperfect Rule to direct a just Pronun-The Pauses therefore, as well as the Variations of the Voice, must be chiesly regulated by a careful Attention to the Sense and Importance of the Subject.

2. The next Thing to be regarded in reading is the Empbuss; and to see that it be always laid on the emphatical Word.

When we distinguish any particular Syllable in a Word with a strong Voice, it is called Accent; when we thus distinguish any particular Word in a Sentence, it is called Emphasis; and the Word so distinguished, the emphatical Word.

And

And the emphatical Words (for there are often more than one) in a Sentence, are those which carry a Weight or Importance in themselves, or those on which the Sense of the rest depends; and these must always be distinguished by a fuller and stronger Sound of Voice, wherever they are found, whether in the Beginning, Middle, or End of a Sentence. Take for instance those Words of the Satyrist.

Recte, si possis, si non, quocúnque Modo Rém.
HOR.

Get Place and Wealth, if possible, with Grace,
If not, by any Means get Wealth and Place.
POPE.

In these Lines the emphatical Words are accented; and which they are, the Sense will always discover.

Here it may not be amiss briefly to observe two or three

Things.

r. That some Sentences are so full and comprehensive, that almost every Word is emphatical: For instance, that pathetic Expostulation in the Prophecy of Ezekiel,

Why will ye die!

In this short Sentence, every Word is emphatical, and on whichever Word you lay the Emphasis, whether the first, second, third, or sourth, it strikes out a different Sense, and

opens a new Subject of moving Expostulation.

2. Some Sentences are equivocal, as well as fome Words; that is, contain in them more Senses than one; and which is the Sense intended, can only be known by observing on what Word the Emphasis is laid. For instance—Shall you ride to Town to-day? This Question is capable of being taken in four different Senses, according to the different Words on which you lay the Emphasis. If it be laid on the Word [you], the Answer may be, No, but I intend to send my Servant in my flead. If the Emphasis be laid on the Word [ride], the proper Answer might be, No, I intend to walk it. If you place the Emphasis on the Word [Town], it is a different Question; and the Answer may be, No, for I design to ride into the Country. And if the Emphasis be laid on the Words [today], the Sense is still something different from all these; and the proper Answer may be, No, but I shall to-morrow. . . Of such Importance fometimes is a right Emphasis, in order to determine the proper Sense of what we read or speak. But I would observe

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3. The Voice must express, as near as may be, the very Sense or Idea designed to be conveyed by the emphatical Word; by a strong, rough, and violent, or a soft, smooth, and tender Sound.

Thus the different Passions of the Mind are to be expressed by a different Sound or Tone of Voice. Love, by a foft, smooth, languishing Voice; Anger, by a strong, vehement, and elevated Voice; Joy, by a quick, sweet, and clear Voice; Sorrow, by a low, flexible, interrupted Voice; Fear, by a dejected, tremulous, hesitating Voice; Courage, hath a full, bold, and loud Voice; and Perplexity, a grave, steady, and earnest one. Briefly, in Exordiums the Voice should be low; in Narrations, distinct; in Reasoning, slow; in Persuasions, frong: It should thunder in Anger, soften in Sorrow, tremble in Fear, and melt in Love.

4. The Variation of the Emphasis must not only distinguish the various Passions described, but the several Forms and Figures of Speech in which they are expressed. e. g.

In a Prosopopæia, we must change the Voice as the Person

introduced would.

In an Antithesis, one Contrary must be pronounced louder than the other.

In a Climax, the Voice should always rise with it.

In Dialogues, it should alter with the Parts.

In Repetitions, it should be loudest in the second Place.

Words of Quality and Distinction, or of Praise or Dispraise, must be prodounced with a strong Emphasis.

Hence then it follows

Lastly, That no Emphasis at all is better than a wrong or misplaced one. For that only perplexes, this always misleads the Mind of the Hearer.

3. The next thing to be observed is Cadence.
This is directly opposite to Emphasis. Emphasis is raising the Voice, Cadence is falling it; and when rightly managed is

very musical.

But besides a Cadence of Voice, there is such a Thing as Cadence of Stile. And that is, when the Sense being almost expressed and perfectly discerned by the Reader, the remaining Words (which are only necessary to compleat the Period) gently fall of themselves without any emphatical Word among them. And if your Author's Language be pure and elegant, his Cadence of Stile will naturally direct your Cadence of Voice.

Cadence generally takes place at the End of a Sentence; unless it closes with an emphatical Word.

Every

Every Parenthesis is to be pronounced in Cadence; that is with a low Voice, and quicker than ordinary; that it may not take off the Attention too much from the Sense of the Period it interrupts. But all Apostrophes and Prosopopaias are to be pronounced in Emphasis.

So much for Paules, Emphasis, and Cadence: A careful Regard to all which is the first Rule far attaining a right Pro-

nunciation.

II. If you would acquire a just Pronunciation in Reading, you must not only take in the sull Sense, but enter into the Spirit of your Author: For you can never convey the Force and Fulness of his Ideas to another till you seel them yourself. No Man can read an Author he does not perfectly understand and taste.

The great Rule which the Masters of Rhetoric so much press, can never enough be remembered; that to make a Man speak well and pronounce with a right Emphasis, he enght thoroughly to understand all that he says, he fully persuaded of it, and bring himself to have those Affections which he desires to insuse into others. He that is inwardly persuaded of the Truth of what he says, and that hath a Concern about it in his Mind, will pronounce with a natural Vehemence that is far more lovely than all the Strains that Art can lead him to. An Orator must endeavour to seel what he says, and then he will speak so as to make others seel it."

The same Rules are to be observed in reading Poetry and Prose: Neither the Rhime nor the Numbers should take off your Attention from the Sense and Spirit of your Author. It is this only that must direct your Pronunciation in Poetry as well as Profe. When you read Verse, you must not at all favour the Measure or Rhime; that often obscures the Sense and spoils the Pronunciation: For the great End of Pronunciation is to elucidate and heighten the Sense; that is, to reprefent it not only in a clear but a strong Light. Whatever then obstructs this is carefully to be avoided, both in Verse and Profe. Nav, this ought to be more carefully observed in reading Veise than Prose; because the Author, by a constant Attention to his Measures and Rhime, and the Exaltation of his Language, is often very apt to obscure his Sense; which therefore requires the more Care in the Reader to discover and distinguish it by the Pronunciation. And if when you read

^{*} Barnet's Pofforat Care, p. 228.

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read Verse with proper Pause, Emphasis and Cadence, and a Pronunciation varied and governed by the Sense, it be not harmonious and beautiful, the Fault is not in the Reader but the Author. And if the Verse be good, to read it thus will improve its Harmony; because it will take off that Uniformity of Sound and Accent which tires the Ear, and makes the Numbers heavy and disagreeable.

III. Another important Rule to be observed in Elocution is,

Study Nature. By this I mean

1. Your own natural Dispositions and Affections. And those Subjects that are most suitable to them, you will easily pronounce with a beautiful Propriety: And to heighten the Pronunciation, the natural Warmth of the Mind should be permitted to have its Course under a proper Rein and Regulation.

2. Study the natural Dispositions and Affections of others. For some are much more easily impressed and moved one way, and some another. And an Orator should be acquainted with

all the Avenues to the Heart.

3. Study the most easy and natural Way of expressing your-fels, both as to the Tone of Voice and the Mode of Speech. And this is best learnt by Observations on common Conversation; where all is free, natural and easy; where we are only intent on making ourselves understood, and conveying our Ideas in a strong, plain, and lively Manner, by the most natural Language, Pronunciation and Action. And the nearer our Pronunciation in Public comes to the Freedom and Ease of that we use in common Discourse (provided we keep up the Dignity of the Subject, and preserve a Propriety of Expression) the most just and natural and agreeable it will generally be.

Above all Things then Study Nature; avoid Affectation; never use Art, if you have not the Art to conceal it: For whatever does not appear natural, can never be agreeable,

much less persuasive.

IV. Endeavour to keep your Mind collected and composed. Guard against that Flutter and Timidity of Spirit, which is the common Inselicity of young, and especially bashful Perfons, when they first begin to speak or read in Public. This is a great Hinderance both to their Pronunciation and Invention; and at once gives both themselves and their Hearers an unnecessary Pain. It will by constant Opposition wear off.

And

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And the best Way to give the Mind a proper Degree of Assurance and Self-Command at such a Time, is

1. To be entire Master of your Subject; and a Consciousness that you deliver to your Audience nothing but what is well worth their hearing, will give you a good Degree of Courage.

2. Endeavour to be wholly engaged in your Subject; and when the Mind is intent upon and warmed with it, it will forget that awful Deference it before paid to the Audience,

which was so apt to disconcert it.

3. If the Sight of your Hearers, or any of them, discompose you, keep your Eyes from them.

V. Be fure to keep up a Life, Spirit, and Energy in the Expression; and let the Voice naturally vary according to the Variation of the Stile and Subject.

Whatever be the Subject, it will never be pleasing, if the Stile be low and flat; nor will the Beauty of the Stile be dis-

covered, if the Pronunciation be fo.

Giere observes, there must be a Glow in our Stile, if we would warm our Hearers. And who does not observe how ridiculous it is to pronounce the ardens Verbum in a cold lifeless Tone? And the Transition of the Voice (as before observed) must always correspond with that of the Subject, and the Passions it was intended to excite.

VI. In order to attain a just and graceful Pronunciation, you should accustom yourselves frequently to hear those who excel in it, whether at the Bar or in the Pulpit; where you will see all the fore-mentioned Rules exemplified, and be able to account for all those Graces and Beauties of Pronunciation which always pleased you, but you did not know why.

And indeed, the Art of Pronunciation, like all others, is better learnt by Imitation than Rule: But to be first acquainted with the Rules of it, will make the Imitation more easy. And beyond all that hath been said, or can be described, you will observe a certain Agreeableness of Manner in some Speakers that is natural to them, not to be reduced to any Rule, and to be learnt by Imitation only; nor by that, unless it be in some Degree natural to you.

Lastly, You should frequently exercise yourself to read

aloud according to the foregoing Rules.

It is Practice only that must give you the Faculty of an elegant Pronunciation. This, like other Habits, is only to be attained by often repeated Acts.

Orators

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Orators indeed, as well as Poets, must be born so, or they will never excel in their respective Arts: But that Part of Oratory which consists in a decent and graceful Pronunciation (provided there be no Defect in the Organs of Speech) may be attained by Rule, Imitation, and Practice; and, when attained, will give a Beauty to your Speech, a Force to your Thoughts, and a Pleasure to the Hearers, not to be expressed; and which all will admire, but none can imitate, unless they are first prepared for it by Art and Nature.

In fine, the great Advantage of a just Pronunciation is, that it will please all, whether they have no Taste, a bad Taste, or

a good Tafte.

But as under the Word [Pronunciation] the Ancients comprehended Action as well as Elecution; and as a few general Rules concerning that may be of use to such as speak in Public, it may not be improper here briefly to subjoin them.

The Action then should be as easy and as natural as the Elocution; and, like that, must be varied and directed by the

Passions.

An affected Violence of Motion is as disgussful as an affected Vehemence of Voice; and no Action, as bad as no Emphasis: Which two Faults commonly go together, as do the other two, just before mentioned.

Those Parts of the Body that are to be principally employed in Oratorical Action, are the Head, the Face, the Eyes, the

Hands, and the upper Part of the whole Body.

1. The Head. This should generally be in an erect Pofture; turning sometimes on one Side, and sometimes on the other, that the Voice may be heard by the whole Audience, and a Regard paid to the several Parts of it.

It should always be on the same Side with the Action of the Hands and Body, except when we express an Abhorrence, or a Refusal of any thing, which is done by rejecting it with the Right-hand, and turning away the Head to the Left; as in that Sentence—Dii talem terris avertete pessem—where such an Action is very proper in pronouncing the Word avertete.

2. The Countenance. In this is the Seat of the Soul, and the very Life of Action. Every Passion, whilst uttered with the Tongue, should be painted in the Face. There is often more Eloquence in a Look than any Words can express. By this we are awed, charmed, incensed, softened, grieved, rejoiced, raised, or dejected, according as we catch the Fire of the Speaker's Passion from his Face. In short, there is no End in recounting the Force and Effects of this dumb Oratory; which Nature only teaches, and which Persons of low

Paffions lose all the Advantages of. Look well upon a good Piece of Painting where the Passions are strongly expressed,

and you will conceive the Power of it.

3. The Eyes. These should be carried from one Part of the Audience to another, with a modest and decent Respect; which will tend to recall and fix their Attention, and animate your own Spirit by observing their Attention fixed. But if their Affections be strongly moved, and the observing it be a Means of raising your own too high, it will be necessary then to keep the Eye from off them. For though an Orator should always be animated, he should never be overcome by his Paffions.

The Language of the Eye is inexpressible. It is the Window of the Soul; from which fometimes the whole Heart looks out at once, and speaks more feelingly than all the warmest Strains of Oratory; and comes effectually in Aid of

it, when the Passion is too strong to be uttered.

4. The Hands.
The Left-hand should never be used alone; unless it be to attend the Motion of the Head and Eyes in an Address to the Audience on the Left-fide.

The Right-hand may be often used alone.

When you speak of the Body, you may point to it with the middle Finger of your Right-hand.

When you speak of your Soul or Conscience, you may lay

your Right-hand gently on your Breaft.

It should be often displayed with an easy Motion to favour an Emphasis; but seldom or never be quite extended.

All its Motions should be from the Left to the Right.

Both the Hands displayed, and the Arms extended, is a violent Action, and never just or decent unless the Audience be noisy, and Part of them at a Distance from the Speaker, and he is labouring to be heard; and then they should never be extended higher than the Head, unless pointing at something above the Audience. *

The Motion of the Hand should always correspond with those of the Head and Eyes; as they should with the Passions expressed.

In deliberate Proof or Argumentation, no Action is more proper or natural, than gently to lay the first Finger of the

Right-hand on the Palm of the Left.

Of what great use the proper Motion of the Hand is in affifting Pronunciation, and how many Paffions may be strong-VOL. I.

^{*} See Raphael's Cartoon, representing St. Paul preaching at Athens.

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ly indicated thereby, when attended with that of the Hes and Eyes, is not easy to be described, but is soon observe in common Conversation.

Lajlly, The Posture of the Bsdy.

This should be usually erech; not continually changing nor always motionless: Delining in Acts of Humiliation; i

Acts of Praise and Thanksgiving, raised.

It should always accompany the Motion of the Hands, Head and Eyes, when they are directed to any particular Part of the Audience; but never so far as to let the Back be turned to any Part of it.

But let it suffice just to hint at these Things. They wh desire to see them more largely treated of, may consu

Quintilian de Inflitutione Oratoria, lib. xi. cap. 3.

After all, with regard to Action, the great Rule is (the sam as in Pronunciation) to fellow Nature, and avoid Affectation. The Action of the Body, and the several Parts of it, must correspond with the Pronunciation, as that does with the Stile, and the Stile with the Subject. A perfect Harmony o all which compleats the Orator. *

Those who desire to be more particularly acquainted with this Subject, and the several other Branches of Oratory, I would advise not to trust altogether to the Rules of modern Writers, but to repair to the Fountain Head; and converse with the great Masters and Teachers of this Art among the Ancients; particularly Dioxysius a Halicarna at, Cicero, Quintilian, and Longinus.





LESSONS for READING.

LESSON I.

On the Duty of Children to Parents.

THE Course and Compass of God's Providence, and his Methods of establishing and evidencing the Measures of reciprocal Duty, is no where more remarkable than in the mutual Obligations between Parents and their Children. The Child comes into the World naked and helpless, and from himself more destitute of the natural Means of Security and Support, than almost any of the inferior Creatures. In this Exigency the Paternal Care and Tenderness steps in to his Relief, supplies all his Necessities, and relieves all his Wants; bears with all his untowardly Dispositions, at an Age when he is neither capable of being corrected or convinced; and not only provides the properest Food for him, when he is incapable of providing any for himself, but likewise administers it when he is incapable of feeding himself; bears with all Degrees of his Folly and Impertinence, liftens to all his trifing and idle Enquiries, not only with l'atience, but with Pleasure, till they gradually conduct him to Health, and Strength, and Knowledge. But the Child is not long arrived at this Perfection of his Nature, before his Parents begin to fall gradually into the same Infirmities thro' which they but lately conducted and supported their Children, and to need the same Assistance which they lately lent. And first they begin to grow fickly, and then they call for the Aid of that Health which they cultivated and took rare of in their Children. The lofs of Chearfulness and Good-humour commonly succeeds the loss of Health; the old Parents are uneafy,

easy, and fret at all about them. And now is the Time for Children to return all that Tenderness and Patience to their Parents Peevishness, without Sourness or Reproof, which their Parents had long lent them in all their childish Perverseness, at an Age when they were not capable of being corrected. In the next place, the old Parents grow troublefomely talkative, and (as Youth is too apt to think) impertinent, and dwell eternally upon the Observations and Adventures of their Times and early Years. Remember, you also had your Time of being talkative and impertinent, and your Parents bore with you, but with this Difference, you asked them filly and trifling Questions, and they now tell you wife and useful Observations. But they are troublesome because they tell them too often. The Answer to this is very obvious; if your Parents bore your Folly, you may well bear their Wifdom; and although perhaps they talk more than is necessary to inform you of present Things, yet their Conversation turns mostly upon Things past, perhaps past many Years before you came into the World, and confequently fuch as they must know a thousand times better than you. Or though they should talk more than is necessary to inform you, they do not talk more than is necessary to inform your Servants, or your Children. who are now come to an Age of asking many Questions; and therefore Providence hath well appointed, that their Grand-father or their Grand-mother are now in an Humour to answer them all, and to supply them with a Store of useful Observations which they want, nay, which they want to hear over and over again, which they want to have inculcated a thousand times, and which, without this Affistance, would require a Course of Years to acquire for themselves. So that the Humour of Talkativeness, which is commonly thought so troublesome in old People, hath its Use, and is most excellently appointed by Almighty God. But fay it were not, the Children in bearing with it, do but barely return their Parents what they long fince owed them. In the next place, the Strength of the old Parents fails them, and they cannot walk without a Support; but fure, you will not let them want one! How many Years did they bear you in their Arms? How many more did they lead you where you would be, and faved you from Falling and from Danger? And will you now suffer those old Limbs to totter and fall to the Earth, which so often supported and saved yours when they were weak and tender, and unable to support and fave themselves? Certainly you will not, you cannot at once be guilty of fo much Cruelty and Ingratitude. In the last place, the Understanding of the old Parents begins to fail, and

the Strength of their Minds doth not long outlive the Strength of their Bodies, but decays gradually till they become again Children; their Teeth fall, and their Tongues faulter, and they are once more Infants, and are now confin'd to their Beds, as they were at first to their Cradles. This is the last Stage of Life; and here they demand all that Care and Compassion, and Tenderness at your Hands, when they are just going out of the World, which you called for at theirs when you first came into it.

LESSON II.

The Folly of PRIDE.

TF there be any thing which makes human Nature appear ridiculous to Beings of Superior Faculties, it must be Pride. They know so well the Vanity of those imaginary Perfections that swell the Heart of Man, and of those little supernumerary Advantages, whether in Birth, Fortune, or Title, which one Man enjoys above another, that it must certainly very much aftonish, if it does not very much divert them, when they see a Mortal puffed up, and valuing himself above his Neighbours on any of these Accounts, at the same time that he is obnoxious to all the common Calamities of the Species. fet this Thought in its true Light, we will fancy, if you please, that yonder Mole-hill is inhabited by reasonable Creatures, and that every Pismire (his Shape and Way of Life excepted) is endowed with human Passions. How should we smile to hear one give us an Account of the Pedigrees, Distinctions, and Titles that reign among them !- Observe how the whole Swarm divides and makes way for the Pismire that passes through them! You must understand he is an Emmet of Quality, and has better Blood in his Veins than any Pismire in the Mole-hill. Don't you see how sensible he is of it, how slow he marches forward, how the whole Rabble of Ants keep their Distance? Here you may observe one placed upon a little Eminence, and looking down on a long Row of Labourers. He is the richest Insect on this Side the Hillock, he has a Walk of half a Yard in Length, and a quarter of an Inch in Breadth; he keeps a hundred menial Servants, and has at least fifteen Barly-corns in his Granary. He is now chiding and bellaving C₃

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the Emmet that flands before him, and who, for all that we

can discover, is as good an Emmet as himself.

But here comes an Infect of Figure! Don't you take notice of a little white Straw that he carries in his Mouth? That_ Straw, you must understand, he would not part with for the longest Tract about the Mole hill; did you but know what he has undergone to purchase it! See, the Ants of all Qualities and Conditions swarm about him; should this Straw drop out of his Mouth, you would fee all this numerous Circle of Attendants follow the next that took it up, and leave the discarded Insect, or run over his Back to come at his Successor.—If now you have a mind to fee all the Ladies of the Mole-hill, observe first the Pilmire that liftens to the Emmet on her Left Hand, at the fame time that the feems to turn her Head away from him. He tells this poor Infect that she is a Goddess, that her Eyes are brighter than the Sun, that Life and Death are at her Disposal. She believes him, and gives herfelf a thousand little Airs upon it.— Mark the Vanity of the Pifmire on your Left Hand! the can fearce crawl with Age, but you must know she values herself upon her Birth, and if you mind, spurns at every one that comes within her Reach. The little nimble Coquette that is running along by the Side of her is a Wit; she has broke many a Pismire's Heart; do but observe what a Drove of Lovers are running after her.—We will here finish the imaginary Scene; but first of all, to draw the Parallel closer, will suppose, if you please, that Death comes down upon the Mole-hill in the Shape of a Cock-Sparrow, who picks up without Distinction, the Pilmire of Quality and his Flatterers, the Pilmire of Substance and his Day-Labourers, the White Straw Officer and his Sycophants, with all the Goddeffes, Wits and Beauties of the Molehill.

May we not imagine, that Beings of superior Natures and Perfections regard all the Instances of Pride and Vanity among our own Species in the same kind of View, when they take a Survey of those who inhabit the Earth? Or, in the Language of an ingenious French Poet, those Pismires that people this Heap of Dirt, which human Vanity has divided into Climates and Regions?

LESSON

LESSON III.

On CONVERSATION.

Means of that Communication. I speak, and in an Instant my Ideas and Sentiments are communicated to the Person who hears me; my whole Soul in a manner passes into his. This Communication of my Thoughts, is again the Occasion of others in him, which he communicates to me in his turn. Hence arises one of the most lively of our Pleasures; by this means too we enlarge our Knowledge, and this reciprocal Commerce is the principal Source of our intellectual Wealth.

The first Rule with regard to Conversation, is to observe all the Laws of Politeness in it. This Rule is of all others the most indispensable. It is not in every one's Power perhaps to have fine Parts, say witty Things, or tell a Story agreeably; but every Man may be polite, if he pleases, at least to a certain Degree. Politeness has infinitely more Power to make a Person be loved, and his Company sought after, than the most extraordinary Parts or Attainments he can be Master of. These scarce ever sail of exciting Envy, and Envy has always some Ill-will in it. If you would be esteemed, make yourself be loved; we always esteem the Person we love more than he deserves, and the Person we do not love, as little as ever we can; nay, we do all we can to despise him, and commonly succeed in it.

Great Talents for Conversation require to be accompanied with great Politeness; he who eclipses others owes them great Civilities; and whatever a mistaken Vanity may tell us, it

is better to please in Conversation than to shine in it.

Another general Rule in Conversation is, to conform yourself to the Taste, Character, and present Humour of the Persons you converse with. This Rule is a Consequence of the foregoing; Politeness distates it, but it requires a large Fund of Good-nature and Complaisance to observe it; not but that a Person must follow his Talent in Conversation; do not force Nature, no one ever did it with Success. If you have not a Talent for Humour, or Raillery, or Story-telling, never attempt them. Contain yourself also within

within the Bounds of what you know, and never talk upon Things you are ignorant of, unless it be with a View to inform yourself. A Person cannot fail in the Observance of this Rule without making himself ridiculous; and yet how often do we see it transgressed! Some who on War or Politics could talk very well, will be perpetually haranguing on Works of Genius and the Belles Lettres; others who are capable of Reasoning, and would make a Figure in grave Discourse, will yet constantly aim at Humour and Pleasantry, tho' with the worst Grace imaginable. Hence it is, that we see a Man of Merit sometimes appear like a Coxcomb, and hear a Man of Genius talk like a Fool.

Avoid Disputes as much as possible. In order to appear easy and well-bred in Conversation, you may assure yourself it requires more Wit, as well as more Good-humour, to improve, than to contradict the Notions of another; but if you are at any time obliged to enter on an Argument, give your Reasons with the utmost Coolness and Modesty, two Things which scarce ever fail of making an Impression on the Hearers. Besides, if you are neither dogmatical, nor shew either by your Actions or Words that you are full of yourself, all will the more heartily rejoice at your Victory; nay, should you be pinch'd in your Argument; you may make your Retreat with a very good Grace; you were never positive, and are now glad to be better inform'd. This has made some approve the Socratical Way of Reasoning, where while you fearee affirm any thing, you can hardly be caught in an Absurdity; and tho' possibly you are endeavouring to bring over another to your Opinion, which is firmly fixed, you feem only to defire Information from him.

In order to keep that Temper which is so difficult, and yet so necessary to preserve, you may please to consider, that nothing can be more unjust or ridiculous, than to be angry with another, because he is not of your Opinion. The Interest, Education, and Means by which Men attain their Knowledge, are so very different, that it is impossible they should all think alike, and he has at least as much Reason to be angry with you, as you with him. Sometimes, to keep yourself cool, it may be of Service to ask yourself fairly, what might have been your Opinion, had you all the Biasses of Education and Interest your Adversary may possibly have? But if you contend for the Honour of Victory alone, you may lay down this as an infallible Maxim, that you cannot make a more false Step, or give your Antagonist a greater

Advantage over you, than by falling into a Passion.

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When an Argument is over, how many weighty Reasons does a Man recollect, which his Heat and Violence made him utterly forget?

It is yet more abfurd to be angry with a Man because he does not apprehend the Force of your Reasons, or give weak ones of his own. If you argue for Reputation, this makes your Victory the easier; he is certainly in all Respects an Object of your Pity, rather than Anger; and if he cannot comprehend what you do, you ought to thank Nature for her Favours, who has given you so much the clearer Understanding.

You may please to add this Consideration, that among your Equals no one values your Anger, which only preys upon its Master; and perhaps you may find it not very consistent either with Prudence or your Ease, to punish yourself

whenever you meet with a Fool or a Knave.

Lastly, if you purpose to yourself the true End of Argument, which is Information, it may be a seasonable Check to your Passion; for if you search purely after Truth, 'twill be almost indisterent to you where you find it. I cannot in this Place omit an Observation which I have often made, namely, that nothing procures a Man more Esteem and less Envy from the whole Company, than if he chuses the Part of Moderator, without engaging directly on either Side in a Dispute. This gives him the Character of impartial, surnishes him with an Opportunity of sisting Things to the Bottom, of shewing his Judgment, and of sometimes making handsome Compliments to each of the contending Parties. I shall close this Subject with giving you one Caution: When you have gained a Victory, do not push it too far; 'tis sufficient to let the Company and your Adversary see 'tis in your Power, but that you are too generous to make use of it.

LESSON IV.

On the same Subject.

THE Faculty of interchanging our Thoughts with one another, or what we express by the Word Converfation, has always been represented by moral Writers, as one of the noblest Privileges of Reason, and which more particularly sets Mankind above the Brute Part of the Creation.

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Though nothing so much gains upon the Affections as this Extempore Eloquence, which we have constantly Occasion for, and are obliged to practise every Day, we very rarely meet with any who excel in it.

The Conversation of most Men is disagreeable, not so much for want of Wit and Learning, as of Good-breeding

and Discretion.

If you resolve to please, never speak to gratify any particular Vanity or Passion of your own, but always with a Design either to divert or inform the Company. A Man who only aims at one of these, is always casy in his Discourse; he is never out of Humour at being interrupted, because he considers that those who hear him are the best Judges, whether what he was saying could either divert or inform them.

A modest Person seldom fails to gain the Good-will of those he converses with; because nobody envies a Man who

does not appear to be pleased with himself.

We should talk extremely little of ourselves. Indeed what can we say? It would be as imprudent to discover our Faults, as ridiculous to count over our fancied Virtues. Our private and domestic Affairs are no less improper to be introduced into Conversation. What does it concern the Company how many Horses you keep in your Stables? Or whether your Servant is most Knave or Fool?

A Man may equally affront the Company he is in, by engroffing all the Talk, or observing a contemptuous Si-

lence.

Before you tell a Story, it may be generally not amiss to draw a short Character, and give the Company a true Idea of the principal Persons concerned in it. The Beauty of most Things confisting not so much in their being said or done, as in their being said or done by such a particular Person, or on such a particular Occasion.

Notwithstanding all the Advantages of Youth, sew young People please in Conversation; the Reason is, that want of Experience makes them positive, and what they say is rather with a Design to please themselves, than any one else.

It is certain, that Age itself shall make many Things pass well enough, which would have been laugh'd at in the

Mouth of one much younger.

Nothing, however, is more insupportable to Men of Sense, than an empty formal Man who speaks in Proverbs, and decides all Controversies with a short Sentence. This Piece of Stupidity is the more insusferable, as it puts on the Air of Wisdom.

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A prudent Man will avoid talking much of any particular Science for which he is remarkably famous. There is not methinks an handfomer Thing faid of Mr. Cowley in his whole Life, than that none but his intimate Friends ever difcover'd he was a great Poet by his Discourse. Besides the Decency of this Rule, it is certainly founded in good Policy. A Man who talks of any thing he is already famous for, has little to get, but a great deal to lose. I might add, that he who is sometimes silent on a Subject where every one is satisfied he could speak well, will often be thought no less knowing in other Matters, where perhaps he is wholly ignorant.

Whenever you commend, add your Reasons for doing so; it is this which distinguishes the Approbation of a Man of Sense from the Flattery of Sycophants, and Admiration of

Fools.

Raillery is no longer agreeable than while the whole Company is pleafed with it. I would leaft of all be understood

to except the Person rallied.

Though Good-humour, Sense and Discretion, seldom fail to make a Man agreeable, it may be no ill Policy sometimes to prepare yourself in a particular Manner for Conversation, by looking a little farther than your Neighbours into whatever is become a reigning Subject. If our Armics are befieging a Place of Importance Abroad, or our House of Commons debating a Bill of Consequence at Home, you can hardly fail of being heard with Pleasure, if you have nicely inform'd yourself of the Strength, Situation and History of the first, or of the Reasons for and against the latter. will have the fame Effect, if when any fingle Person begins to make a Noise in the World, you can learn some of the smallest Accidents in his Life or Conversation, which though they are too fine for the Observation of the Vulgar, give more Satisfaction to Men of Sense, (as they are the best Opening to a real Character) than the Recital of his most glaring Actions. I know but one ill Consequence to be fear'd from this Method, namely, that coming full charg'd into Company, you should resolve to unload, whether an handsome Opportunity offers itself or no.

Though the asking of Questions may plead for itself the specious Name of Modesty, and a Desire of Information, it affords little Pleasure to the rest of the Company, who are not troubled with the same Doubts; besides which, he who asks a Question would do well to consider, that he lies wholly at the Mercy of another, before he receives an Answer.

Nothing is more filly than the Pleasure some People take in what they call speaking their Minds. A Man of this Make will say a rude Thing for the mere Pleasure of saying it; when an opposite Behaviour, sull as innocent, might have preserved his Friend, or made his Fortune.

It is not impossible for a Man to form to himself as exquifite a Pleasure in complying with the Humour and Sentiments of others, as of bringing others over to his own; since 'tis the certain Sign of a superior Genius, that can take and

become whatever Dress it pleases.

I shall only add, that besides what I have here said, there is something that can never be learnt, but in the Company of the Polite. The Virtues of Men are catching as well as their Vices, and your own Observations added to these, will soon discover what it is that commands Attention in one Man, and makes you tir'd and displeased with the Discourse of another.

LESSON V.

On POETRY.

HO' Invention be the Mother of Poetry, yet this Child is like all others, born naked, and must be nourished with Care, cloath'd with Exactness and Elegance, educated with Industry, instructed with Art, improved by Application, corrected with Severity, and accomplished with Labour and with Time, before it arrives at any great Perfection or Growth. 'Tis certain, that no Composition re-· quires fo many feveral Ingredients, or of more different Sorts, than this; nor that to excel in any Qualities, there are necessary so many Gifts of Nature, and so many Improvements of Learning and of Art. For there must be an universal Genius, of great Compass, as well as great Elevation. There must be a sprightly Imagination or Fancy, sertile in a thousand Productions, ranging over infinite Ground, piercing into every Corner, and by the Light of that true poctical Fire, discovering a thousand little Bodies or Images in the World, and Similitudes among them, unfeen to common Eyes, and which could not be discover'd without the Rays of that Sun. Besides the Heat of Invention and Liveliness of Wit, there must be the Coldness of good Sense, and Soundness of Judgment, to distinguish between Things and Conceptions, which at first sight, or upon short Glance, seem alike; to chuse among infinite Productions of Wit and Fancy, which are worth preserving and cultivating, and which are better stissed in the Birth, or thrown away when they are

born, as not worth bringing up.

Without the Forces of Wit, all Poetry is flat and languishing; without the Succours of Judgment, 'tis wild and extravagant. The true Wonder of Poefy is, that such Contraries must meet to compose it; a Genius both penetrating and solid; in Expression both Delicacy and Force; and the Frame or Fabric of a true Poem, must have something both sublime and just, amazing and agreeable. There must be a great Agitation of Mind to invent, a great Calm to judge and correct; there must be upon the same Tree, and at the same Time, both Flower and Fruit. To work up this Metal into exquisite Figure, there must be employed the Fire, the Chissel, and the File. There must be a general Knowledge both of Nature and of Arts; and to go the lowest that can be, there are required Genius, Judgment, and Application; for without this last, all the rest will not serve Turn, and none ever was a great Poet that applied himself much to any thing else.

LESSON VI.

A VISION.

HATEVER Industry and Eagerness the modern Discoverers have shewn for the Knowledge of new Countries, there yet remains an ample Field in the Creation, to which they are utter Strangers, and which all the Methods of Travelling hitherto invented, will never bring them acquainted with. Of this I can give a very particular Instance, in an Accident which lately happened to me. As I was on the 6th of this Instant, walking with my Eyes cast upwards, I fell into a Reslection on the vast Tracts of Air which appeared before me as uninhabited. And wherefore, said I to myself, should all this Space be created? Can it only be for an odd Bird to sty through, as now and then a Man passes a Desart? Or are there also Kingdoms, with their particular Polities and People,

People, of a Species which we know nothing of, ordain'd to live in it? - It was in this manner I continued my Thought, when my Feet forfook the Level, and I was insensibly mounted in the Air, till I arrived at a Footing as firm and level as what I had left. But with what Surprize did I find myself among Creatures distinct from us in Shape and Cufloms! The Inhabitants are of a small Stature, below those which History describes for Pigmies; the tallest of them exceed not fourteen or fitteen Inches, and the least are hardly three. This Difference proceeds only from their Growth before they are brought to Light; for after, we never observe them to grow, unless it please their Parents, who have this uncommon Method of enabling them: They recall them to the Womb, where having been for fome time, they receive an Addition to their Bulk, then go back to their Houses, and continue at a Stand as they did before. The Experiment has been often tried with Success, but some have suffered extremely by undergoing it.

Their Skins are like the ancient Britons, all drawn over with Variety of Figures; the Colour made use of for this End is generally black. I have indeed observed in some of the Religious and Lawyers of this Country, Red here and there intermingled, though not so commonly of late. They tell me too, they often used to paint with all Colours; and I visited two or three of the old Inhabitants who were adorned in that Fashion: But this is now disused, since the new Inventions, by which the Use of a black Fountain that belongs to that Country, is rendered more useful and ser-

viceable.

The Cloaths in which they go clad are the Skins of Beafts, worn by fome plain, by others with Figures wrought upon them. Gold is also made use of by some to beautify their Apparel; but very seldom Silver, unless as Buckles are by us, for sastening the Garments before. I have seen some of them go like Seamen in thin blue Shints; others like Indians, in a party-colour'd loose kind of Apparel; and others, who they told me were the Politicians of the Country, go about stark naked.

The Manner of dreffing them is this: At first when they come into the World they have a Suit given them, which is it do not fit exactly, is not as with us, fitted up again, but the Children are in a cruel Manner cut and squeez'd to bring them to its Proportion. Yet this they seem not much to regard, provided their principal Parts are not affected. When the Dress is thus settled on them, they are clad for Life, it

being seldom their Custom to alter it, or put it off: In short, they live in it Night and Day, and wear it to Rags rather than part with it, being fure of the same Torture, and a greater Danger if they should be dressed a second time. I have farther taken notice, that they delight to go open-breasted, most of them shewing their Bosoms speckled. Some Lawyers indeed wear them quite white, perhaps for Distinction sake, or to be known at a Distance; but the finest Shew is among the Beaux and Ladies, who mightily affect something of Gold both before and behind them. Food I never faw them cat, they being a People, who, as I have observed, live in Air: Their Houses are all single and high, having no back Rooms, but frequently seven or eight Stories, which are all separate Houses above one another. . They have one Gate to their City, and generally no Doors to their Houses; tho' I have sometimes feen them have particular Doors, and even made of Glass, where the Inhabitants have been observed to stand many Days, that their fine Apparel may be seen through them. If at any time they lie down, which they do when they come from their Habitations, as if coming abroad were their greatest Fatigue, they will lie together in Heaps without receiving Hurt; tho the foundest Sleep they get, is when they can have Dust enough to cover them over. The Females amongst them are but sew, nothing being there produced by a Marriage of Sexes. Males are of a different Strength or Endowment of Parts, some having Knowledge in an extreme Degree, and others none at all, yet at the same time they are mighty willing to instruct others. Their Names (for as many as would discover them to me) I observed to be the very same as ours are upon Earth; I met a few who made theirs a Mystery, but why I am yet to learn. They are so communicative, that they will tell all the Knowledge they boaft, if a Stranger apply himself to their Conversation: And this may be worth his while, if he confiders that all Languages, Arts, and Sciences, are profetled am ongst them. I think I may say it without Vanity, that I Taissman, with proper Figures and Characters in C. Was charmed inferibed, whereby their greatest People may be charmed, brought to refide with a Man, and serve him like a Familiar the Conduct of Life.

There is no fuch thing as Fighting amongst them, but the ir Controversics are determined by Words, wherein they than two or three Replies: Perhaps indeed two others take up their Neighbour's Quarrel, but then they desist too after the same manner; sometimes, however, Blows have ensued

upon their Account, tho' not amongst them: In such a they have descended to inspire Mankind with their Senti and chosen Champions from among us, in order to decide

The time of their Life is very different; some die as a born, and others in their Youth; some get a new Leatheir entering into the Womb again; and if any weath to a hundred Years, they generally live on to an extrema After which it is remarkable, that instead of growing as we do by Time, they increase in Strength, and become so confirmed in Health, that it is the Opinion of their Co

they never can perish while the World remains.

The Sicknesses which may take them off, besides who pens from their natural Weakness of Body, are of di Sorts. One is Over-moisture, which affecting their Ma makes them lose their Complexions, become deforme rot away infenfibly: This is often obviated by their not ing too much within Doors. Another is the Worms, prey upon their Bowels. If they be maimed by Acc they become like us, so far useless, and that will some ti other be the Occasion of their Ruin. However, they by these means only in appearance, and like Spirits who in one Place, to be feen in another. But as Men die c fions, so Disesteem is what the most nearly touches them they withdraw into Holes and Corners, and confume in Darkness. Or if they are kept alive a few Days Force of Spices, it is but a short Reprieve from their ing to Eternity without any Honour; but that instead Burial, a small Pyre of Paste should be crected over them, they, like the ancient Romans, are reduced to Ashes.

LESSON VII.

The Pitture of a Good MAN.

ITE makes the Interest of Mankind, in a manner, his own; and has a tender and affectionate Concern for their Welfare. He cannot think himself happy, whatever his Polesions and Enjoyments are, while he sees others miserable. His Wealth and Affluence delight him chicfly as the Poor and Indigent are the better for it; and the greatest Charms of Proparty is the Opportunity it affords of refleving his Fellow-Creatures, and of being more extensively useful. He thinks he has discharged but the least Part of his Duty, when he has done fria Justice to all; and therefore the communicating Advice and Comfort, Affistance and Support, according to the various Engencies of these with whom he converses, is his constant Endeavour, and most pleasing Entertainment. In the strong and degant Language of Job, He is Eyes to the Blind, and Feet to the Lame; he delivereth the Poor that cry, and the Fatherless, and him that bath none to help him; the Blesfing of him that is ready to perish cometh upon him, and he couseib the Widow's Heart to sing for Joy. And that he may practife the more large and generous Charity, he retrenches useless Pomp and Extravagance; and by a regular and prudent Management, constantly provides for the Relief of the Necesfitous; esteeming this a much more sublime and noble Gratification, than the idle Amusements and Gallantries of a vain and luxurious Age.

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He not only takes all Occasions that present themselves of doing Good, but seeks for Opportunities to be useful; it is part of the stated Employment and Business of his Life. He contrives and studies which way he may be most serviceable to his Fellow-Creatures, and what that particular Talent is, with which he is entrusted for the Good of Mankind. If it be Pozwer, he protects and encourages Virtue by his Authority and Instuence, is the Patron of Liberty, and vindicates the Cause of oppressed Innocence. If Riches, he is rich in good works, ready to distribute, willing to communicate. If Knowledge, he counts it his highest Pleasure to instruct the Ignorant, and administer proper Direction and Comfort in perplexing and distribute Circumstances; and to defend the Cause of Religion, and represent it in a just and amiable Light. And to nothing Vol. I.

of this does he want to be felicited, but his generous Heart is always ready, and strongly disposed for beneficent Designs and Actions. You cannot lay a greater Obligation upon him, than by proposing Ways in which he may be useful, or enlarge his Sphere of Usefulness; for this is the Point in which all his Views, all his Satisfactions center.

Add to this, that he is inclin'd to abate of his Right, when infifting too strictly upon it may have the App arance of Harshness and Severity; and has such a throng Sente of Benevolence, fuch an exalted Spirit of Humanity and Compassion, that no Confiderations of private Interest, no Difference of Nation or religious Profession, can restrain; and which the greatest Iniuries cannot bear down and extinguish. He aims that his Goodness may be as diffusive as possible, and as much like that of the univerfal Parent, the eternal Fountain of Good, who supports, enlivens, and recreates the whole Creation; and therefore, as he is generous in all his Defigns, he is very fearful of difobliging any, either by Word or Action; and endeavours in hiswhole Conduct, to be agreeable as well as useful to all: Being candid in his Cenfures, practifing to his Inferiors the most endearing Condescension, and carefully avoiding Moroseness, and every thing that has the Appearance of Infolence or Contempt. Finally, to conclude the Sketch of this most beautiful and honourable Character, the good Man is unwearied in his Endeavours to promote the Happinels of others; the Ardor of his Benevolence is not cool'd, tho' he meets with ungrateful Returns; the Trouble and Expence of the Service do not discourage him; nay, he is ready to give up all private Confiderations for the take of the public Welfare, and even to facrifice Life itself, when the Good of the World requires it.

LESSON VIII.

The Duty of endeavouring to obtain Wisdom, and the Use and Importance of it.

ISDOM is of itself delectable and satisfactory. It is like Light, pleasant to behold, casting a sprightly Luftre, and diffusing a benign Influence all about; difplaying Objects in their due Shapes, Poffures, Magnitudes and Colours; dispelling the Darkness of Ignorance, scattering the Mists of Doubt, and driving away the Spectres of delusive Fancy; discovering Obstacles, securing the Progress, and making the Passages of Life clear, open and pleafant. Wildom begets in us a Hope of Success in our Actions, and is usually attended therewith. Now what is more delicious than Hope? What more fatisfactory than Success? And he that aims at a good End, and knows he uses proper Means to attain it, why should he despair of Succefs, fince Effects naturally follow their Causes, and the Divine Providence is wont to afford its Concurrence to fuch Proceedings? Wildom makes all the Troubles, Griefs, and Pains incident to Life, whether casual Adversities, or natural Afflictions, easy and supportable; by rightly valuing the Importance, and moderating the Influences of them. fuffers not busy Fancy to alter the Nature, amplify the Degree, or extend the Duration of them, by representing them more fad, heavy, and remediless than they truly are. Befides that it confers a Policity and Dexterity in Action, which is a very pleatant and commodious Quality. To do things with Difficulty and Struggling, disheartens a Man, queils his Courage, blunts the Edge of his Refolution, renders him fluggish and averse from Business, the' apprehended never to necellary and of great Moment. These Obstructions Wildom removes, facilitating Operations, by directing the Intention to Ends possible and attainable, by suggesting fit Means and Inflruments to work by, by contriving right Methods and Courses of Process; the Mind by it being stor'd with Variety of good Principles, fure Rules, and happy Expedients, reposed in the Memory, and ready upon all Occafions to be produced and employed in Practice. Wildom begets a found, healthful and harmonious Complexion of the Soul, disposing us with Judgment to distinguish, and with $\mathbf{D}^{-}\mathbf{z}$ Pleature

Pleasure to relish savory and wholesome things, but to naufeate and reject fuch as are ungrateful and noxious to us; whence to the Soul proceeds all that Comfort, Joy and Vigour, which refults to the Body from a good Constitution and perfect Health. Wildom acquaints us with ourselves. our own Temper and Conflitution, our Propensions and Pasfions, our Habitudes and Canacities; a thing not only of mighty Advantage, but of infinite Pleasure and Content to us. No Man in the World less knows a Fool than himself He hath wonderful Conceits of his own Qualities and Faculties; he affects Commendations incompetent to him, and foars at Employments furpassing his Ability to manage No Comedy can represent a Mistake more odd and ridiculous than his; for what he wanders, stares and hunts after, bu never can find or discern, is himself. Wisdom procures and preserves a constant Favour and fair Respect of Men. purchaics a good Name, and upholds Reputation in the World: which things are naturally definable, and commodious in Life. The composed Frame of Mind, uniform and comely Demeanor, compliant and inoffentive Convertation, fair and punctual Dealing, confiderate Motions and dextrous Addresses of wife Men, naturally beget Esteem and Assection in those that observe them: Whereas Folly is freakish and humorous, impertinent and obstreperous, inconstant and inconfistent, prevish and exceptious, and consequently trouble fome to Society, and productive of Aversion and Difrespect Wildom instructs us to examine, compare, and rightly to value the Objects that court our Affections, and challenge our Care; and thereby regulates our Passions, and moderates ou Endeavours, which begets a pleafant Serenity, and peacefu Tranquility of Mind. For when, being deluded with fall Shews, and relying upon ill-grounded Prefumptions, we highly effect and eagerly purfue things of little Worth it themselves, as we profittute our Affections, mis-spend ou Time, and lose our Labour; so the Event not answering ou Expectation, our Minds thereby are confounded, disturber and distempered. Wisdom discovers our Relations, Duties and Concernments, in respect of others with whom w converse; distinguishes the Circumstances, limits the Mea fures, determinates the Modes, appoints the fit Scafon c Action; thus preferving Decorum and Grdr, the Parents c Peace; and preventing Confusion, the Mother of Iniquity Strife and Disquiet. In fine, Wissom acquaints us wit the Nature and Reason of true Religion, and persuades u to the Practice of it; teaches us wherein it confills, an

what it requires, the Mistake of which produceth daily so many Mischiess in the World. It shews that it consistent not in fair Professions, but in real Practice; not in a pertinacious Adherence to any Sect or Party, but in a sincere Love of Goodness, and Dislike of Naughtiness, wherever discovering itself; not in harsh Censuring and virulently Inveighing against others, but in carefully Amending our own Ways; not in a vain Ostentation of outward Performances, but in an inward Goodness of Mind, exerting itself in Works of true Devotion and Charity; not in a nice Orthodoxy, or politic Schiestion of our Judgments to the peremptory Dictates of Men, but in a sincere Love of Truth, in a hearty Approbation of Compliance with Doctrines sundamentally good, and necessary to be believed.

LESSON IX.

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A View of the different Climes and Regions of the Earth.

TOW oblique and faintly looks the Sun on yonder Climates, far removed from him! How tedious are the Winters there! How deep the Horrors of the Night. and how uncomfortable even the Light of the Day! The freezing Winds employ their fiercest Breath, yet are not spent with blowing. The Sea, which elsewhere is scarce confined within its Limits, lies here immur'd in Walls of Crystal. The Snow covers the Hills, and almost fills the lowest Vallies. How wide and deep it lies, incumbent over the Plains, hiding the fluggish Rivers, the Shrubs and Trees, the Dens of Beafts, and Mansions of distress'd and feeble Men !- See! where they lie confined, hardly secure against the raging Cold, or the Attacks of the wild Beafts, now Masters of the wasted Field, and forc'd by Hunger out of the naked Woods.—Yet not dishearten'd (such is the Force of human Breasts) but thus provided for by Art and Prudence, the kind compensating Gifts of Heaven, Men and their Herds may wait for a Release. For at length the Sun approaching, melts the Snow, fets longing Men at Liberty, and affords them Means and Time to make Provision against the next Return of Cold. It breaks the icy Fetters of the Main, where the vast Sea-Monsters pierce thro' floating Islands, D 3

with Arms which can withstand the crystal Rock: whill others, who of themselves seem great as Islands, are by their Bulk alone arm'd against all but Man, whose Superiority ove Creatures of such stupendous Size and Force, should make him mindful of his Privilege of Reason, and sorce him humbly to adore the great Composer of these wonderous Frames, and Author of his own superior Wisdom.

But leaving these dull Climates, so little savoured by th Sun, for those happier Regions, on which he looks most kindly, making perpetual Summer; how great an Alteration do we find! His purer Light confounds weak-sighted Mortals; pierced by his scorching Beams, scarce can they treat the glowing Ground. The Air they breathe cannot enough abate the Fire which burns within their panting Breath Their Bodies melt; overcome and fainting, they seek the Shade, and wait the cool Refreshments of the Night. Ye oft the bounteous Creator bestows other Resreshments; he casts a Veil of Clouds before them, and raises gentle Gales savoured by which, the Men and Beasts pursue their Labours; and Plants resreshed by Dews and Showers, can gladly beauthe warmest Sun-beams.

And here the varying Scene opens to new Wonders. fee a Country rich with Gems, but richer with the fragran Spices it affords. How gravely move the largest of Land-Creatures on the Banks of this fair River! How ponderon are their Arms, and vast their Strength, with Courage, and a Sense superior to the other Beasts! yet are they tamed Mankind, and brought even to fight their Battles, rather a Allies and Confederates, than as Slaves. But let us turn et Eyes towards these smaller and more curious Objects, the numerous and devouring Infects on the Trees in thefe wid Plains: How thining, flrong and latting are the fubtle Thread fpun from their artful Mouths! Who beside the All-wife ha taught them to compose the beautiful foir Shells, in which recluse and buried, yet still alive, they undergo such a sur prifing Change, when not destroyed by Men, who cloath an adorn themselves with the Labours and Lives of these wear Creatures, and are proud of wearing such inglorious Spoils How fumptuously apparelled, gav, and splendid, are all the various Infects which feed on the other Plants of this warr Region! How beautiful the Plants themselves in all their va rious Growths, from the triumphant Palm, down to th h mble Moss!

Now may we see that happy Country where preciou Gems and Balsams flow from Trees, and Nature yields he

most delicious Fruits. How tame and tractable, how patient of Labour and of Thirst, are those large Creatures, who lifting up their losty Heads, go led and loaden thro' those dry and barren Places! Their Shape and Temper shew them fram'd by Nature to submit to Man, and sitted for his Service; who from hence ought to be more sensible of his

Wants, and of the divine Bounty thus supplying them.

But fee! not far from us that fertilest of Lands, water'd and fed by a friendly generous Stream, which ere it enters the Sea, divides itself into many Branches, to dispense more equally the rich and nitrous Manure, it bestows so kindly in due Time on the adjacent Plains. - Fair Image of fruitful and exuberant Nature, who with a Flood of Bounty bleffes all Things, and, Parent-like, out of her many breaks fends the nutritious Draught in various Streams to rejoicing Offspring!—Innumerable are the dubious Forms unknown Species which drink the flimy Current; whether they are fuch as leaving the fcorch'd Defarts, fatiate here their ardent Thirst, and promiscuously engending, bea monstrous Race; or whether, as 'tis faid, by the Sun's genial Heat active on the fermenting Ooze, new Forms are generated, and issue from the River's fertile Bed. - See there the noted Tyrant of the Flood, and Terror of its Borders! when fuddenly di playing his horrid Form, the amphibious Ravager invades the Land, quitting his watry Den, and from the Deep emerging, with hideous Rush sweeps o'er the trembling Plain. The Natives from afar behold with Wonder the enormous Bulk, sprung from so small an Egg. With Horror they relate the Monster's Nature, cruel and deceitful; how he with dire Hypocrify, and false Tears, beguiles the Simple-hearted; and infpiring Tenderness and kind Compasfion, kills with pious Fraud.—Sad Emblem of that spiritual Plague, dire Superstition! Native of this Soil, where first Religion grew unsociable, and among different Worshipers bred mutual Hatred and Abhorrence of each other's Temples. The Infection spreads, and Nations now profane one to another, war fiercer, and in Religion's Cause forget Humanity; whillt favage Zeal, with meek and pious Semblance, works dreadful Massacre, and for Heaven's Sake (horrid Pretence!) makes desolate the Earth.

Here let us leave these Monssers (glad if we could here confine 'em) and detesting the dire prolific Soi', sly to the vast Desarts of these Parts. All ghastly and hideous as they appear, they want not their peculiar Beauties. The Wildness pleases, we seem to live alone with Nature: We view

her in her immost Recesses, and contemplate her with mon Delight in these original Willis, than in the artificial Labo rinths and fermic Wilderneues of the Palace. The Object of the Place, the fealt Sements, the favage Beatls, and polfoncus Infects, how ternible foeter, or how contrary to human Nature, im beauterus in themielves, and fit to raife ou Thoughts in Admiration of that divine William, it für fuperior to our front Views. Unable to coclare the Uk and Service of all Things in the Universe, we are yet alluid of the Perfection of alle and of the Justice of that Occomomy to which all Things are fubersient; and in reject of which, Trings feeming wiefrimid are amable. Diletter becomes regular, Consumin while me, and Foods slich as these we

have her spieve healing and boreficial.

But behita thret a vath Tract of Sky pefere us the migrov A. r rurs his low Head, ever'e with Snew above the Charles Beneath the Mountain's Poets to crocky Country to be to Hold a proper Bass of the profession Mass above, we trough embody'd Rocks He plead on one another, and stem to propothe high Arch of Heaven.—Seel with worst trembling Steps poor Mankey trush the narrow Br. Is stone deep Precipies : From whence with guady Horrer they look down, miffrufting even the Ground which bered len, while they hear the hollow Seemi of Torrents wheth, and for the Run of the anyoning Rock, with full of the sown in high with their Kents thwords, and from it is to be a Run with them. Here thoughtles Men, file with the Newness of the Objects, become thoughtful, rne was programment die incollent Changes of this Erath's survey. They fee, as in one Indant, the Revoluthe sof pult Ages, the fleeting Forms of Things, and the Deray even of this has Globels whose Youth and first Formust in they combiler, whill the apparent Spoil and irreparable Branch : 11. wated Mountain thew them the World 40 Forly as a risely Rain, and make them think of its apfried in Persis -- but hise, min-way the Mountain, a fried in Persis or thek Wood barbons cur weary'd Travillers, to so now are come a nong the Ever-green and lofty Port , err Firs and meble Cedars, where towing Heads from et al. in the Say, the rult of Pices appearing only Strate is ide them. And here a different Horror feizes our mount's Travellers, when they fee the Day diminish'd by the town Shales of the vail Wood, which closing thick above friends Dakneis and cternal Night below. The faint and gloomy Light looks horrid as the Shade itiell; and the profound

found Stillness of these Places imposes Silence upon Men, Bruck with the hoarse Ecchoings of every Sound within the spacious Caverns of the Wood. Here Space associations is silence itself seems pregnant, whilst an unknown Force works on the Mind, and dubious Objects move the wakeful Sense. Mysterious Voices are either heard or fancy'd, and various Forms of Deity seem to present themselves, and appear more manifest in these facred Sylvan Scenes; such as of old gave rise to Temples, and favour'd the Religion of the ancient World. Even we ourselves, who in plain Characters may read Divinity from so many bright Parts of the Earth, chuse rather these obscurer Places to spell out that mysterious Being, which to our weak Eyes appears at best under a Veil of Cloud.

LESSON X.

On HAPPINESS.

Happiness! our Being's End and Aim!
Good, Pleasure, Ease, Content! whate'er thy Name: That Something, which still prompts th' eternal Sigh; For which we bear to live, nor fear to die: Which still so near us, yet beyond us lies; O'erlook'd, seen double, by the Fool—and Wise. Plant of Celettial Seed! if dropt below, Say in what mortal Soil thou deign'ft to grow? Fair opening to some Court's propitious Shrine? Or deep with Diamonds in the flaming Mine? Twin'd with the Wreaths Parnassian Laurels yield? Or reapt in Iron Harvests of the Field? Ask of the Learn'd the Way, the Learn'd are blind: This bids to serve, and That to shun Mankind. Some place the Bliss in Action, some in Ease; Those call it Pleasure, and Contentment These.-Take Nature's Path, and mad Opinions leave; All States can reach it, and all Heads conceive: Obvious her Goods, in no Extreme they dwell, There needs but thinking right, and meaning well; And mourn our various Portions as we please, Equal is common Sense, and common Ease .-

On READING.

ORDER is Heaven's first Law; and this confest, Some are, and must be, greater than the rest, More rich, more wise; but who infers from hence, That such are happier, shocks all common Sense.—Know, all the Good that Individuals find, Or God and Nature meant to mere Mankind; Reason's whole Pleasures, all the Joys of Sense, Lie in three Words, Health, Peace, and Competence.

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LESSON XI.

The JUGGLER.

A FABLE.

A JUGGLER long through all the Town Had rais'd his Fortune and Renown: You'd think (fo far his Art descends)
The Devil at his Finger's Ends.
VICE heard his Fame, she read his Bill;
Convinc'd of his inferior Skill,
She sought his Booth, and from the Croud Desy'd the Man of Art aloud.

Is this then he so sam'd for Slight?
Can this slow Bungler cheat your Sight?
Dares he with me dispute the Prize?
I leave it to impartial Eyes.

Provok'd, the Juggler cry'd, 'Tis done: In Science I fubmit to none.

Thus faid, the Cups and Balls he play'd By turns; this here, that there convey'd: The Cards, obedient to his Words, Are by a Fillip turn'd to Birds; His little Boxes change the Grain, Trick after Trick deludes the Train. He shakes his B'g, he shows all fair, His Fingers spread, and nothing there; Then bids it rain with Show'rs of Gold, And now his Iv'ry Eggs are told; But when from thence the Hen he draws, Amaz'd Spectators him applause.

VICE now stept forth, and took the Place, With all the Forms of his Grimace. This magic Looking-glass, she cries, There, hand it round, will charm your Eyes. Each eager Eve the Sight defir'd, And ev'ry Man hi nielf admir'd. Next, to a Senator addressing, See this Bank-note; observe the Bleffing. Breathe on the Bill.—Heigh, pass—'tis gone! Upon his Lips a Padlock shone. A fecond Puff the Magic broke, The Padlock vanish'd, and he spoke. Twelve Bottles rang'd upon the Board, All full, with heady Liquor stor'd, By clean Conveyance disappear, And now two bloody Swords are there. A Purse she to a Thief expos'd: At once his ready Fingers clos'd; He opes his Fift, the Treasure's fled, He sees a Halter in its Stead. She bids Ambition hold a Wand, He grasps a Hatchet in his Hand. A Box of Charity she shows; Blow here, and a Church-warden blows: 'Tis vanish'd with Conveyance neat, And on the Table imokes a Treat. She shakes the Dice, the Board she knocks, And from all Pockets fills her Box. She next a meagre Rake address'd; This Picture see; her Shape, her Breast! What Youth, and what inviting Eyes! Hold her, and have her.-With Surprize, His Hand expos'd a Box of Pills; And a loud Laugh proclaim'd his Ills. A Counter, in a Mifer's Hand, Grew twenty Guineas at Command; She bids his Heir the Sum retain, And 'tis a Counter now again. A Guinea with her Touch you fee Take ev'ry Shape but Charity; And not one Thing, you saw or drew, But chang'd from what was first in View. The Juggler now in Grief of Heart, With this Submission, own'd her Art.

On READING.

- " Can I fuch matchless Slight withstand?
- et How Practice hath improv'd your Hand!
- " But now and then I cheat the Throng;

"You ev ry Day, and all Day long.

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LESSON XII.

On MUSICK.

Escend, ye Nine! descend and sing; The breathing Instruments impire. Wake into Voice each filent String, And sweep the sounding Lyre! In a fadiv-pleafing Strain Let the warbling Lute complain: Let the loud Trumpet found, Till the Roofs all around The shrill Echoes rebound: While in more lengthen'd Notes and flow, The deep, majestic, solemn Organs blow. Hark ' the Numbers foft and clear, Gently fleal upon the Ear; Now louder, and yet louder rife, And fill with spreading Sounds the Skies; Exulting in Triumph now fwell the bold Notes, In broken Air, trembling, the wild Music floats; Till by Degrees, remote and small, The Strains decay, And melt away, In a dying, dying Fall.

LESSON XIII.

Tie RURAL LIFE.

H knew he but his Happiness, of Men The happiess he' who far from public Rage,

Deep in the Vale, with a choice Few retir'd, Drinks the pure Pleasures of the Rural Life. What the the Dome be wanting, whose proud Gate Each Morning vomits out the fneaking Croud Of Flatterers false, and in their Turns abus'd? (Vile Intercourse!) What they the glitt'ring Robe Of every Hue reflected Light can give, Or floating loose, or stiff with mazy Gold, (The Pride and Gaze of Fools!) oppress him not? What the' from utmost Land and Sea purvey'd, For him each rarer tributary Life Beeds not, and his infatiate Table heaps With Luxury and Death? What tho' his Bowl Flames not with costly Juice; nor funk in Beds, Oft of gay Care, he toffes out the Night, Ormelts the thoughtless Hours in idle State? What the 'he knows not those fantastic Joys, That still amuse the Wanton, still deceive; A Face of Pleasure, but a Heart of Pain; Their hollow Moments undelighted all? Surc Peace is his; a folid Life, estrang'd To Disappointment, and fallacious Hope: Rich in Content, in Nature's Bounty rich, In Herbs and Fruits; whatever greens the Spring, When Heaven descends in Show'rs; or bends the Bough, When Summer reddens, and when Autumn beams; Or in the wintry Glebe whatever lies Conceal'd, and fattens with the richest Sap: These are not wanting; nor the milky Drove, Luxuriant, spread o'er all the lowing Vale; Nor bleating Mountains; nor the Chide of Streams, And Hum of Bees inviting Sleep fincere Into the guiltless Breast, beneath the Shade, Or thrown at large amid the fragrant Hay: Nor aught beside of Prospect, Grove, or Song, Dim Grottos, gleaming Lakes, and Fountains clear. Here too dwells simple Truth; plain Innocence; Unfully'd Beauty; Sound unbroken Youth, Patient of Labour, with a Little pleas'd; Health ever-blooming; unambitious Toil; Calm Contemplation, and Poetic Eafe.

LESSON XIV.

The Morning Hymn of ADAM and EVE

THESE are thy glorious Works, Parent of Good! Almighty! Thine this univerfal Frame, Thus wond'rous fair; Thy felf how wond'rous then ! Unspeakable! who fitt'st above their Heav'n... To us invisible, or dimly ken In these thy lowest Works: vacable deed re-Thy Goodness beyond Thoughter the formation Speak ye who best can tell, ye bons on a con-Angels! for ye behold him, and with congs, And choral Symphonics, Day without N ht, Circle his Throne rejoicing; ve in ricav'n: On Earth join all ye Creatures to extoll Him first, Him last, Him midst, and without End. Fairest of Stars! last in the Train of Night. If better thou belong not to the Dawn, Sure Pledge of Day, that crown'st the smiling Morn With thy bright Circlet, praise Him in the Spi ere While Day arises, that sweet Hour of Prime. Thou Sun, of this great World both Eye and Soul, Acknowledge him thy Greater; found in Praise In thy eternal Course, both when thou climb'il, And when high Noon hast gain'd, and when thou fall st. Moon! that now meets the orient Sun, now fly'ft With the fix'd Stars, fix'd in their Orb that flies; And ye five other wand'ring Fires! that move In mystic Dance not without Song, resound His Praise, who out of Darkness call'd up Light. Air, and ye Elements! the eldest Birth Of Nature's Womb, that in Quaternion run Perpetual Circle multiform; and mix, And nourish all Things: let your ceaseless Change Vary to our great Maker still new Praise. Ye Mists and Exhalations! that now raise From Hill, or streaming Lake, dusky, or grey, Till the Sun paint your fleecy Skirts with Gold, In Honour to the World's great Author rise: Whether to deck with Clouds th' uncolour a Sky, Or wet the thirsty Earth with falling Show'rs,

Rifing, or falling, still advance His Praise. His Praise, ye Winds! that from four Quarters blow, Breathe fost, or loud; and wave your Tops, ye Pines! With every Plant, in Sign of Worship, wave. Fountains! and ye that warble, as ye flow, Melodious Murmurs! warbling, tune his Praise! Join Voices, all ye living Souls! ye Birds, That finging up to Heaven gate ascend, Bear on your Wings, and on your Notes, His Praise! Ye that in Waters glide, and ye that walk The Earth, and stately tread, or lowly creep! Witness if I be filent, Morn or Even. To Hill, or Valley, Fountain, or fresh Shade, Made vocal by my Song, and taught His Praise. Hail universal Lord! be bounteous still To give us only Good: and if the Night Have gather'd aught of Evil, or conceal'd, Disperse it, as now Light dispels the Dark!

SECT. II. On SPEAKING.

IN these sew Lessons which I have selected for the Improvement of your Reading, I have endeavour'd as much as was possible to chuse such as contain good and useful Sentiments, and at the same time require many different Manners of Reading, as in the Study and Practice of them we have observ'd. I now proceed to lay before you some Lesfons for your Improvement in Speaking, to which a distinct and proper Manner of Reading is the best Preparative. I thought it best to take the Speeches I would have you make use of from the Roman History; as it is of all other Histories the most entertaining, the most interesting, and the most useful: and I have chosen to select those Speeches from Mr. Hooke, as his Stile is generally allow'd to be more pure and elegant than any other Roman History in our Language. To each Speech is prefix'd a short Account of the Occasion on which it was made, which will enable you to enter the better into the Sense and Meaning of it, and into the Spirit and Manner in which it ought to be spoke. These short Arguments should always be read to those who are to hear you before you begin to fpeak. LESSONS

LESSONS for SPEAKING.

LESSON I.

Romulus and Remus being sent by their Grandfather Numitor from Alba, at the Head of a Colony, to seek a new Settlement, quarrell'd about the Choice of a Spot where they sould fix, and build them a City; Romulus chusing Mount Palatine, and Remus Mount Aventine. Remus is said to have lost his Life in this Dispute. The City was therefore built on Mount Palatine, and, in Compliment to its Founder, called Rome. As Romulus had not taken upon him the chief Command of the Colony for any longer Time than while the City was building, he, as soon as the Work was finish'd, submitted the Form of its suture Government to the Choice of the People, and calling the Citizens together, barangu'd them in Words to this Effect.

IF all the * Strength of Cities lay in the Height of their Ramparts, or the Depth of their Ditches, we fhould have great Reason to be in Fear for that which we have now built. Are there in Reality any Walls too high to be scaled by a valiant Enemy? And of what Use are Ramparts in intestine Divisions? They may serve for a Desence against studen Incursions from Abroad; but it is by Courage and Prudence chiefly, that the Invasions of Foreign Enemies are repelled; and by Unanimity, Sobriety, and Justice, that Domestic Seditions are prevented. Cities fortisted by the strongest Bulwarks, have been often seen to yield to Force from without, or to Tumults from within. An exact mili-

^{*} Rome, properly speaking, says Mr. Hooke, was at first but a very sorry Village, whereof even the principal Inhabitants sollow'd their own Ploughs; and until it was rebuilt, after the burning of it by the Gauls, did not deserve the name of a City. Such were the Beginnings of the Capital of the World!

tary Discipline, and a steady Observance of Civil Polity, are the furest Barriers against these Evils. But there is still another Point of great Importance to be considered. The Prosperity of some rising Colonies, and the speedy Ruin of others, have in great measure been owing to their Form of Government. Was there but one manner of ruling States and Cities that could make them happy, the Choice would not be difficult. But I have learnt, that of the various Forms of Government among the Greeks and Barbarians, there are three which are highly extolled by those who have experienced them; and yet, that no one of these is in all Repects perfect, but each of them has some innate and incurethe Defect. Chuse you then in what manner this City be governed. Shall it be by one Man? shall it be by 2 feet Number of the wifest among us? or small the Legilative Power be in the People? As for me, I shall submit to whatever Form of Administration you shall please to establift. As I think myself not unworthy to command, so neither am I unwilling to obey. Your having chosen me to be the Leader of this Colony, and your calling the City after my Name, are Honours sufficient to content me; Honours, of which, living or dead, I can never be deprived.

LESSON II.

Romulus was chosen King; and Rome was governed by Kings for upwards of 240 Years, till the Expulsion of Tarquin the 2d, which was occasion'd by his Son Sextus ravishing Lucretia, the Wife of Collatinus, a noble Roman. Lucretia, upon receiving this Injury, sent for her Husband, who was then in the Camp at Ardea with Tarquin, and for several of his Friends, and having inform'd them of the Outrage she had received, and engag'd them to revenge it, stab'd herself to the Heart, and by'd before them. The Romans had long groan'd under the Tyranny and Cruelties of the Tarquins, and were therefore glad to lay hold on so stage grant and outrageous an Insult, to shake off their Yoke. The famous Junius Brutus, who for some Reasons had mask'd himself, and concealed great Talents, under the Appearance of Idiotism, suddenly threw off his Disguise; and going near to the dying Lady, drew the Ponyard out of her Bosom, and Vol. I.

On SPEAKING.

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cheming it all thinky to the A limbly, to their great Aftonifi-

VES, noble Lady, I (wear by this Blood, which was once to pure, and which nathing but Royal Villainy could have polluted, that I will puriou Lucius Tarquinius the Proud, his wicked Wife, and their Children, with Fire and Sword; nor will I ever suffer any of that Family, or of any other whatfolder, to be Aing in Roma Ye Gods, I call you to witness this my Oath — There, Rivan A turn your Eyes to that fad Speciacle—the Daughter of Lucrerbar, Collations's Wife-she died by her own Hand. See there a noble Lady, whom the Luft of a Targain reduced to the Neccility of being her own Executioner, to atteil her Innicence. Holpitably entertain'd by her as a Kinfinan or her Hutband's, Sextus, the perfidious Guert, became her brutal Ravilher. chaffe, the generous Lucratia could not furvive the Infult. Glorious Woman! But once only treated as a Slave, the thought Life to longer to be endured. Luntiful a Wimare, difdain'd a Life that depended on a Tyrant's Will; and fhall We, shall Mer with such an Example before our Eyes, and after five and twenty Years of ignominious Servitude, shall We, through a Fear of thirt, defer one fingle Instant to affert our Liberty? No. Remark, now is the Time; the favourable Moment we have to long walted for, is come. Turquin is not at Roma. The Patriciars are at the Head of the Enterprize. The City is abundantly provided with Mon. Arms, and all Things receilary. There shothing wanting to fecure the Success. If our own C course does not rail us. And thall their Warriers, who have ever been so have when foreign. Evernies were to be subclued, or when Conquests were to be mile to port? the Ambition and Avence of Tarquis, be then on? It was is, when they are to colliver themselves from Slavering Some or you are purhaps infinitated by the Army which Taylor now economies. The Solders, you imagine, will take the Person that Garanta Benish G. imagine, will nice the Port of their Gerede Barish so gradulies a Fig. The Love of Liberty is natural to all Men. You Fillow-Crosses in the Cump sed the Weight of Court for will say that their Rame. They we is a given a tre Court medicine at get the Yoka. Entire the granteness make these their terms of them, who their Remois of South, or a not Figure on, will be differed to freeze the Langua. The Number of their can be but mails and we have Means fufficient in our blands to colors them to Readen. They have left as eliminates more

dear to them than Life. Their Wives, their Children, their Fathers, their Mothers, are here in the City. Courage, Romans, the Gods are for us; those Gods, whose Temples and Altars the impious Tarquin has profaned by Sacrifices and Libations made with polluted Hands, polluted with Blood, and with numberless unexpiated Crimes committed against his Subjects. Ye Gods, who protected our Fore-fathers, ye Genii, who watch for the Preservation and Glory of Rome, do you inspire us with Courage and Unanimity in this glorious Cause, and we will to our last Breath defend your Worship from all Profanation.

LESSON III.

After the Expulsion of the Tarquins, Rome was governed by two Confuls, who held their Office during the Space only of a Year, at the Conclusion of which new ones were chosen by the Senate and People. After some time, the People found themselves very much oppressed by the Patricians; who engroffed the whole Power of the State, and by various Extortions, such as lending them Money at exorbitant Interest, and the like, had got Possession of all their Lands, and often feized their Persons, imprisoned, or used them as Slaves, (the Laws permitting it in case of the Non-payment of their Debts) in a barbarous manner. Unable to bear this cruel Treatment, a Number of them, at the Instigation of Sicinnius Bellutus, and another Junius Brutus, took an Opportunity, when the State had great Need of their Assistance, to defert their Generals, and retired to a Hill three Miles from Rome. In this Exigence, a Deputation was fent to them from the Senate, persuading them with many fair Promises, to return. At the Head of this Deputation were T. Lartius, Menenius Agrippa, and M. Valerius, all three in great Esteem; and of whom two had govern'd the Republic, and commanded ber Armies in quality of Distator. When they were introduced to the Camp of the Male-contents, and had given an Account of their Commission, Junius Brutus, perceiving his Comrades continued in a profound Silence, and that none of them attempted to make himself an Advocate in the Caufe, stepped forward, and thus addressed them.

NE would imagine, Fellow-Soldiers, by this deep Silence, that you are still awed by that servile Fear in which the Patricians and your Creditors kept you so long, Every Man confults the Eyes of the rest, to discover whether there be more Resolution in others than he finds in himself; and not one of you has the Courage to speak in public, that which is the constant Subject of your private Conversation. Do you not know that you are free? This Camp, these Arms, do not they convince you that you are no longer under Tyrants? And if you could still doubt it, would not this Step which the Senate has taken be sufficient to satisfy you? Those Patricians, so haughty and imperious, now fend to court us; they no longer make use either of proud Commands, or cruel Threats; they invite us as their Fellow-Citizens to return into our common City; nay fome of our Sovereigns, you see, are so gracious as to come to our very Camp, to offer us a general Pardon. Whence then can proceed this obstinate Silence, after such singular Condescensions? If you doubt the Sincerity of their Promises; if you fear that under the Veil of a few fine Words they conceal your former Chains, why do you not speak? Declare your Thoughts freely. Or, if you dare not open your Mouths, at least hear a Roman, who has Courage enough to fear nothing but the not speaking the Truth. [Then turning to Valerius,] You invite us to return to Rome, but you do not tell us upon what Conditions: Can Plebeians, poor, tho' free, think of being united with Patricians to rich, and fo ambitious? And even though we should agree to the Conditions you have to offer, what Security will the Patricians give us for the Performance, those haughty Patricians, who make it a Merit among themselves to have deceived the People? You talk to us of nothing but Pardon and Forgiveness, as if we were your Subjects, and Subjects in Rebellion; but that is the Point to be discussed. Is it the People or the Senate who are in Fault? Which of the two Orders was it, that first violated those Laws of Society, which ought to reign among the Members of the same Republic? This is the Question. In order to judge of this without Prejudice, give me leave barely to relate a certain Number of Facts, for the Truth of which I will appeal to no other but yourfelf and your Collegue. Our State was founded by Kings, and never was the Roman People more free, and more happy, than under their Government. Tarquin himself, the last of those Princes, Tarquin, so odious to the Senate and the Nobility, favoured our Interests as much

as he opposed yours. Nevertheless, to revenge your Wrongs, we drove that Prince from Rome; we took Arms against a Sovereign who defended himself only with the Prayers he made to us to leave your Interests, and to return to his Obedience. We afterwards cut to pieces the Armies of Veii and Tarquinii, which endeavoured to restore him to the Throne. The formidable Power of Porsenna, the Famine we underwent during a long Siege, the fierce Assaults, the continual Battles, were all these, or in short, was any thing capable of shaking the Faith which we had given you? Thirty Latine Cities united to restore the Tarquins. What would you have done then, if we had abandoned you, and joined your Enemies? What Rewards might we not have obtained of Tarquin, while the Senate and Nobles would have been the Victims of his Resentment? Who was it that dispersed this dangerous Combination? To whom are you obliged for the Defeat of the Latines? Is it not to this People? Is it not to them you owe that very Power which you have fince turned against them? What Recompence have we had for the Affistance we gave you? Is the Condition of the Roman People one Jot the better? Have you affociated them in your Offices and Dignities? Have our poor Citizens found fo much as the smallest Relief in their Necessiaties? On the contrary, have not our bravest Soldiers, oppressed with the Weight of Usury, been groaning in the Chains of their merciless Creditors? What has come of all those vain Promises of abolishing, in time of Peace, the Debts which the Extortions of the Great had forced us to contract? Scarce was the War finished, but you alike forgot our Services, and your Oaths. With what Defign then do you come hither? Why do you try to reduce this People by the Enchantments of your Words? Are there any Oaths so solemn as to bind your Faith? And after all, what would you get by a Union brought about by Artifice, kept up with mutual Distrust, and which must end at last in a Civil War? Let us on both Sides avoid such heavy Misfortunes, let us not lose the Happiness of our Separation; suffer us to depart from a Country where we are loaded with Chains like fo many Slaves, and where being reduced to be only Farmers of our own Inheritances, we are forced to cultivate them for the Profit of our Tyrants. So long as we have our Swords in our Hands, we shall be able to open ourfelves a Way into more fortunate Climates; and wherever the Gods shall grant us to live in LIBERTY, there we shall find our Country.

LESSON IV.

By this and frequent Struggles of this Sort, which the People bad made before, they at length obtained the Establishment of the Iribuneship, which confisted of two Officers annually chosen out of the Order of the Plebeians, with Authority to prevent the Injustices that might be done to the People, and to defend their Interests both public and private. this Establishment, made a great Advance towards a new Change in the Form of her Government. It had passed before from the Monarchic State, to a kind of Aristocracy; for upon the Expulsion of Tarquin, the whole Authority did really and in fact devolve upon the Senate and the Great : But now, by the Creation of the Tribunes, a Democracy began to take place, and the People, by insensible Degrees, and under different Pretences, got Possession of the much greater Share in the Government. A Famine which raged at Rome, soon after the Establishment of this Office, occasions great Com-plaints among st the People; and a large Supply of Corn being procured from Sicily by the Patricians, Coriolanus, a young Senator, who had done great Services to the State as a General, is for taking Advantage of the People's Distress, to get the Tribuneship abolished, which he proposes in the Senate. The Tribunes and the People, enraged at this, determine to prosecute Coriolanus, and, after much Altercation, defire to be heard by the Senate in relation to their Charge against bim; where Decius, one of the Tribunes, makes the following ... Speech.

YOU know, Conscript Fathers, that having by our Affistance expelled Tarquin, and abolished the Regal Power, you established in the Republic the Form of Government which is now observed in it, and of which we do not complain. But neither can you be ignorant, that in all the Differences which any poor Plebeians had afterwards with wealthy Patricians, those Plebeians constantly lost their Causes, their Adversaries being their Judges, and all the Tribunals being filled with Patricians only. This Abuse was what made Valerius Poplicola, that wise Consul and excellent Citizen, establish the Law which granted an Appeal to the People, from the Decrees of the Senate, and the Judgments of the Consuls.

Such is the Law called Valeria, which has always been looked upon as the Basis and Foundation of the public Liberty. It is to this Law that we now fly for Redress, if you refuse us the Justice we demand upon a Man, black with the greatest Crime that it is possible to commit in a Republic. It is not a fingle Plebeian complaining, it is the whole Body of the Ramere People, demanding the Condemnation of a Tyrant, who would have destroyed his Fellow-Citizens by Famine, has violated our Magistracy, and forcibly repulsed our Officers, and the Billes of the Commonwealth. Coriolanus is the Man we accuse of having proposed the Abolition of the Tribuneship, a Magistracy made sacred by the most solemn Oaths. What noted is there of a Senatus-Confultum to profecute a Criminal like this? Does not every Man know that those particular Decrees of the Senate, are requisite only in unforeseen and extraordinary Affairs, and for which the Laws have as yet made no Provision? But in the present Case, where the Law is so direct, where it expressly devotes to the infernal Gods those that infringe it, is it not to become an Accomplice in the Crime to helitate in the least? Are you not apprehensive that these affected Delays, this Obstruction you throw in the Way of our Proceedings against this Criminal, by the pretended Necessity of a previous Decree of the Senate, will make the People inclined to believe that Coriolanus only spoke the Sentiments of you all?

I know that several among you complain it was merely by Violence that we extorted your Consent for the Abolition of the Debts, and the Establishment of the Tribuneship. I will even suppose that in the high degree of Power to which you had raised yourselves after the Expulsion of Tarquin, it was neither convenient nor honourable for you to yield up Part of it in Favonr of the People; but you have done it, and the whole Senate is bound by the most solemn Oaths never to undo After the Establishment of those sacred Laws, which render the Persons of your Tribunes inviolable, will you in compliance with the first ambitious Man that arises, attempt to revoke what makes the Security and Peace of the State? Certainly you never will; and I dare answer for you, so long as I behold in this Assembly those venerable Magistrates who had so great a Share in the Treaty made upon the Mons Sacer. Ought you to fuffer a Matter like this to be so much as brought into Deliberation? Coriolanus is the first, who by his seditious Advice has endeavoured to break those sacred Bonds, which, strengthened by the Laws, unite the several Orders of the State. It is he alone who is for destroying the Tribunitian Power,

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the People's Afglum, the Bulwark of our Liberty, and the Pledge of our Re-union. In order to force the People's Consent, in order to perpetuate one Crime, he attempts another much greater. He dares even in a holy Place, and in the midst of the Senate, propose to let the People die of Hunger. Cruel and unthinking Man at the same Time! Did he not consider, that this People whom he meant to exterminate with so much Inhumanity, and who are more numerous and powerful than he could wish, being reduced to Despair, would have broken into the Houses, forced open those Granaries, and those Cellars which conceal so much Wealth, and would rather have fallen under the Power of the Patricians, or have totally rooted out that whole Order? Could he imagine that an enraged Populace would in such a Case have hearkened to any Law, but what was dictated by Necessity and Resentment?

For that you may not be unacquainted with the Truth. we would not have perished by a Famine brought upon us by our Enemies: but having called to witness the Gods, Revengers of Injustice, we would have filled Rome with Blood and Slaughter. Such had been the fatal Consequences of the Counsels of that perfidious Citizen, if some Senators, who had more Love for their Country, had not hindered them from taking Effect. It is to you, Conscript Fathers, that we address our just Complaints. It is to your Aid, and to the Wisdom of your Decrees, that we have recourse, to oblige this public Enemy to appear before the whole Roman People, and answer for his pernicious Counsels. It is there, Coriolanus, that thou must defend thy former Sentiments, if thou darest so to do, or excuse them as proceeding from want of Thought Take my Advice; leave thy haughty and tyrannical Maxims; make thyself less; become like us; nay put on a Habit of Mourning, so suitable to thy present Fortune. Implore the Pity of thy Fellow-Citizens, and perhaps thou may'll obtain their Favour, and the Forgiveness of thy Faults.

LESSON V.

When Decius left off speaking, all the Senators waited, some with impatient Desire, others with uneasy Apprehensions, to hear bow Appius Claudius would declare himself. This Appius was one of those Patricians who had always the most violently opposed the Tribunitial Power. At its first Establishment he foretold the Senate, that they were suffering a Tribunal to be set up, which by Degrees would rise against their Authority, and at length destroy it. When it came to his turn to speak, he defiver a himself thus.

OU know, Conscript Fathers, that I have long opposed, and frequently alone, that too great Easiness with which you grant the People whatever they demand. Perhaps I made myself troublesome, when I so frankly laid before you the Misfortunes which I presaged would follow, from our Re-union with the Deferters from the Commonwealth. The Event however has but too well justified my Apprehenfions. That Share of Power which you yielded up to those seditious Men, is now turned against yourselves. The People punish you by means of your own Benefactions; they take Advantage of your Favour to ruin your Authority. 'Tis in vain for you to attempt to hide from yourselves the Danger which the Senate is in; you cannot but see there is a Design to change the Form of our Government: The Tribunes make gradual Advances to the Tyranny. At first the only Demand was the Abolition of the Debts; and this People, who are now fo haughty, and who endeavour to make themselves the supreme Judges of the Senators, then thought they stood in nced of a Pardon, for the difrespectful Manner in which they fued for that Concession.

Your Easiness gave occasion to new Pretensions; the People would have their particular Magistrates. You know how earnestly I opposed these Innovations; but in spight of all I could do, you assented in this Point also; you allowed the People to have Tribunes, that is to say, perpetual Ringleaders of Sedition. Nay, the People intoxicated with Fury, would have this new Magistracy consecrated in a particular Manner, such as had never been practised, not even in savour of the Consulship, the first Dignity in the Republic. The Senate consented to every thing, not so much out of

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Kindness for the People, as want of Resolution; the Person⁸ of the Tribunes were declared facred and inviolable, and a Law made to that Effect. The People required that it should be confirmed by the most solution Oaths; and that Day, O Fathers! you swore upon the Altars the Destruction of yourselves and Children. What has been the Fruit of all these Favours? They have only served to make you contemptible in the Eyes of the People, and to increase the Pride and Insolence of their Tribunes, who have made to themselves new Rights and Prerogatives. These modern Magistrates, who ought to live as mere private Men, take upon them to convene the Assemblies of the People, and without our Privity procure Laws to be enacted by the Voices of a base Rabble.

It is so odious a Tribunal that they now summon a Patrician, a Senator, a Citizen of your Order; in a word, Coriolanus, that great Captain, and withal that good Man, yet more illustrious for his Adherence to the Interests of the Senate, than for his Valour. They presume to make it a Crime in a Senator to speak his Opinion in full Senate, with that Freedom so becoming a Roman; and if yourselves had not been his Buckler and Defence, they had affaffinated him even in your Presence. The Majesty of the Senate was just going to be violated by this Murder; the Respect due to your Dignity was forgot, and you yourselves were losing both your

Empire and your Liberty.

The Resolution and Courage which you shewed upon this last Occasion, in some measure awakened these Madmen from their drunken Fit. They seem now to be ashamed of a Crime which they could not compleat; they defift from violent Methods, because they have found them unsuccessful, and they seemingly have recourse to Justice, and the Rules of Law.

But what is this Justice, immortal Gods! which these Men of Blood would introduce? They endeavour, by Appearances of Submission, to surprize you into a Senatus-Consultum, which may give them Power to drag the best Citizen of Rome to Punishment. They alledge the Lex Valeria as the Rule of your Conduct; but does not every body know, that this Law, which allows of Appeals to the Assembly of the People, relates only to such poor Plebeians, as being destitute of all other Protection, might be oppressed by the Credit of a strong Cabal? The Text of the Law is plain; it expressly says, that a Citizen condemned by the Consuls shall have Liberty to appeal to the Poplicola, by this Law, only provided a Refuge for those unhappy Men, who had Reason to complain of having been condemned by prejudiced Judges. The Delign of the Law,

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Law. was only to have their Causes heard over again; and when you afterwards confented to the Creation of the Tribunes, neither you, nor even the People themselves, intended any thing more in the Establishment of those new Magistrates, than that this Law might have Protectors, and the Poor be provided with Advocates, who might prevent their being opprefied by the Great. What Relation is there between such a Law, and the Case of a Senator, a Man of an Order superior to the People, and who is accountable for his Conduct to none but the Senate? To shew that the Lex Valeria relates only to Phoeians; for about seventeen Years that it has been made, Let. Decius give me one fingle Instance of a Patrician called in Indement before the People by that Law, and our Dispute will be at an End. And indeed what Justice would there be in delivering up a Senator to the Fury of the Tribunes, and to fuffer the People to be Judges in their own Cause; as if their tumultuous Assemblies, directed by such seditious Magistrates, could be without Prejudice, without Hatred, without Paffion? Thus, O Fathers, it is my Advice, that before you come to any Determination, you maturely confider, that in this 'Affair your Interests are inseparable from those of Coriolanus. As to the rest, I am not for your revoking the Favours you have granted the People, by whatever means they obtained them; but I cannot forbear exhorting you to refuse boldly for the future whatever they shall endeavour to obtain of you contrary to your own Authority, and the Form of our Government.

LESSON VI.

It appears from these two Speeches of Decius, and Appius, that the Business of Coriolanus was only used as a Colour to Affairs of greater Importance. The true Cause of the Dispute and Animosity of the two Parties was this, That the Nobles and Patricians pretended a Right of Succession to the Regal Authority, upon the Expulsion of Tarquin, and that the Government ought to be purely Aristocratic; whereas the Tribunes, by new Laws, endeavoured to turn it into a Democracy, and to bring the whole Authority into the Hands of the People. M. Valerius, an old experienced Senator, and a true Republican, displeased to see those of his own Order constantly affecting

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felling a Distinction and Power, over edisus in a free State, spoke as follows.

WE are made to fear, that the public Liberty will be in Danger, if we grant so much Power to the People, and allow them to try those of our Order who shall be accused by the Tribunes. I am persuaded on the contrary, that nothing is more likely to preserve it. The Republic confilts of two Orders, Patricians and Plebeians; the Question is, Which of those two Orders may more safely be trusted with the Guardianship of that sacred Depositum, our Liberty? I maintain, that it will be more secure in the Hands of the People, who desire only not to be oppressed, than in those of the Nobles, who all have a violent Thirst of Dominion. The Nobles, invested with the prime Magistracies, distinguished by their Birth, their Wealth, and their Honours, will always be powerful enough to hold the People to their Duty; and the People, when they have the Authority of the Laws, being naturally Haters and jealous of all exalted Power, will watch over the Actions of the Great, and, by the Dread of a popular Enquiry and Judgment, keep a Check upon the Ambition of fuch Patricians as might be tempted to aspire to the Tyranny. You abolished the Royalty, Conferent Fathers, because the Authority of a fingle Man grew exorbitant. Not fatisfied with dividing the fovereign Power between two annual Magistrates, you gave them a Counsel of three hundred Senators, to be Inspectors over their Conduct, and Moderators of their Authority. But this Senate, so formidable to the Kings and to the Confuls, has nothing in the Republic to ballance its *Power. I know very well, that hitherto there is all the Reafon in the World to applaud its Moderation: But who can fay whether we are not obliged for this to our Fear of Enemics abroad, and to those continual Wars which we have been forced to maintain? Who will be answerable that our Succeffors, growing more haughty and more potent by a long Peace, shall not make Attempts upon the Liberty of our Country, and that in the Senate there shall not arise some strong Faction, whose Leader will find means to become the Tyrant of his Country, if there be not at the same time some other Power, out of the Senate, to withstand such ambitious Enterprizes, by impeaching the Authors and Abettors of them before the People?

Perhaps the Question will be asked me, Whether the same Inconveniency is not to be apprehended from the People, and whether it is possible to make sufficient Provision, that there

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shall not at some time arise among the Plebeians, a Head of a Party, who will abuse his Influence over the Minds of the Multitude, and under the old Pretence of desending the People's Interests, in the end invade both their Liberty and that of the Senate? But you well know, that upon the least Danger which the Republic may seem to be in on that Side, our Consuls have Power to name a Dicator, whom they will never chuse but from among your own Body; that this supreme Magistrate, absolute Master of the Lives of his Fellow-Citizens, is able by his sole Authority to distipate a popular Faction; and the Wisdom of our Laws has allowed him that sormidable Power but for six Months, for sear he should abuse it, and employ in the Establishment of his own Tyranny, an Authority entrusted with him only to destroy that of any other ambitious Men.

Thus with a mutual Inspection the Senate will be watchful over the Behaviour of the Consuls, the People over that of the Senate; and the Dictator, when the State of Affairs requires the Intervention of such a Magistrate, will curb the Ambition of all. The more Eyes there are upon the Conduct of every Branch of our Legislature, the more secure will be our Liberty, and the more persect our Constitution.

The Issue of this Debate was, that Coriolanus was given up to be tried by the Tribunes of the People; by whom he was condemned to perpetual Banishment.

LESSON VII.

In all the Struggles between the Patricians and the People, the latter generally carried their Points; infomuch, that in Process of Time the greatest Part of the Power of the Commonwealth of Rome came into the Hands of the Tribunes. They called Assemblies of the People when they pleased, and in those Assemblies frequently annulled the Decreet of the Senate. Nothing could be concluded without their Consent, which they expressed by subscribing the Letter T at the Bottom of the Decree. They had it in their Power to prevent the Execution of any Decree, without giving any Reason for it, and merely by subscribing VETO. They sometimes called before the People even the Consult and Dictators to account for their Condust. About forty Years after the Assair of Coriolanus, during

during the Consulship of Quinctius Capitolinus and Agrippa Furius, the same Dissentions are again revived, insomuch that the the Aqui and Volsci, taking Advantage of these Disorders, ravage the Country to the very Gates of Rome, the Tribunes forbad the necessary Levies of Troops to oppose them. Quinctius however, a Senator of great Reputation, well beloved, and now in his fourth Consulate, gets the better of this Opposition, by the following Speech.

HOUGH I am not conscious, O Romans, of any Crime by me committed, it is yet with the utmost Shame and Confusion that I appear in your Assembly. You have feen it-Posterity will know it-In the fourth Consulship of Titus Quinctius, the Equi and Volsci (scarce a Match for the Hernici alone) came in Arms to the very Gates of Rome, and went away again unchastisfed! The Course of our Manners indeed, and the State of our Affairs, have long been such, that I had no reason to presage much Good; but could I have imagined, that so great an Ignominy would have befallen me this Year, I would by Death or Banishment (if all other Means had failed) have avoided the Station I am now in. What! might Rome then have been taken, if those Men who were at our Gates had not wanted Courage for the Attempt?—Rome taken, while I was Consul!—Of Honours I had sufficient—of Life enough—more than enough—I should have died in my third Consulate. But who are they that our dastardly Enemies thus despise? the Confuls? or you, Romans? If we are in fault, depose us, punish us yet more severely. If you are to blame - may neither Gods nor Men punish your Faults! only may you repent. No. Romans, the Confidence of our Enemies is not owing to their Courage, or to their Belief of your Cowardice: They have been too often vanquished not to know both themselves and you. Discord, Discord, is the Ruin of this City. The eternal Disputes between the Senate and the People, are the sole Cause of our Missortunes. While we will set no Bounds to our Domination, nor you to your Liberty; while you impatiently endure Patrician Magistrates, and we Plebeian, our Enemies take Heart, grow elated and presumptuous. In the Name of the immortal Gods, what is it, Romans, you would have? You defired Tribunes; for the Sake of Peace we granted them. You were eager to have Decemvirs; we confented to their Creation. You grew weary of these Decemvirs; we obliged them to abdicate. Your Hatred purfued them when reduced to be private Men; and we suffered

you put to Death or banish Patricians of the first Rank in the Republic. You infifted upon the Restoration of the Tribuneship, we yielded: we quietly saw Consuls of your own Faction elected. You have the Protection of your Tribunes, and the Privilege of Appeal; the Patricians are subjected to the Decrees of the Commons. Under Pretence of equal and impartial Laws, you have invaded our Rights, and we have suffered it, and we still suffer it. When shall we ke an End of Discord? When shall we have one Interest. and one common Country? Victorious and triumphant, you thew less Temper than we under our Defeat. When you are to contend with us, you can seize the Aventine Hill, you can possess yourself of the Mons Sacer. The Enemy is at our Gates, the Æsquiline is near being taken, and no body flirs to hinder it. But against us you are valiant, against us you can arm with all Diligence. Come on then, beliege the Senate-House, make a Camp of the Forum, fill the Jails with our chief Nobles, and when you have atchieved these glorious Exploits, then at least fally out at the Æsquiline Gate with the same fierce Spirits against the Enemy. Does your Resolution fail you for this? Go then, and behold from our Walls your Lands ravaged, your Houses plunder'd and in Flames, the whole Country laid waste with Fire and Sword. Have you any thing here to repair these Damages? will the Tribunes make up your Losses to you? They'll give you Words as many as you please; bring Impeachments in abundance against the prime Men in the State; heap Laws upon Laws; Affemblies you shall have without End: But will any of you return the Richer from those Assemblies? Extinguish, O Romans, these fatal Divisions; generously break this cursed Inchantment, which keeps you buried in a scandalous Inaction. Open your Eyes, and confider the Management of those ambitious Men, who to make themselves powerful in their Party, study nothing but how they may foment Divifions in the Commonwealth. If you can but summon up your former Courage, if you will now march out of Rome with your Confuls, there is no Punishment you can inflict which I will not submit to, if I do not in a few Days drive those Pillagers out of our Territory This Terror of War (with which you feem so grievously struck) shall quickly be removed from Rome to their own Cities.

LESSON VIII.

In the following Year, M. Genucius and C. Curtius being Consuls, the Commons of Rome demand that the Plebeians may be admitted into the Consulship, and that the Law prohibiting Patricians and Plebeians from intermarrying, may be repealed. In Support of this Demand, Canulcius, one of the Tribunes of the People, thus deliver'd himself.

HAT an Infult upon us is this! If we are not to rich as the Patricians, are we not Citizens of Reme, as well as they? Inhabitants of the fame Country? Members of the fame Community? The Nations bordering upon Rome, and even Strangers more remote, are admitted not only to Marriages with us, but to what is of much greater Importance, The Freedom of the City. Are we, because we are Commoners, to be worse treated than Strangers? And when · we demand that the People may be free to bestow their Offices and Dignities on whom they please, do we ask any thing unreasonable or new? Do we claim more than their original inherent Right? What occasion then for all this Uproar, as if the Universe was falling to Ruin? They were just going to lay violent Hands upon me in the Senate-house. What! . must this Empire then be unavoidably overturned, must Rome of Necessity sink at once, if a Plebeian, worthy of the Office, should be raised to the Consulship? The Patricians, I am persuaded, if they could, would deprive you of the common Light. It certainly offends them that you breathe, that you speak, that you have the Shapes of Men. Nay, but to make a Commoner a Consul would be, fay they, a most enormous Thing. Numa Pompilius, however, without being so much as a Roman Citizen, was made King of Rome. The elder Tarquin, by Birth not even an Italian, was nevertheless placed upon the Throne. Servins Tullius, the Son of a Captive Woman (no body knows who his Father was) obtain'd the Kingdom as the Reward of his Wisdom and Virtue. In those Days no Man, in whom Virtue shone conspicuous, was rejected, or despised, on account of his Race and Descent. And did the State prosper the less for that? Were not these Strangers the very best of all our Kings? And supposing now that a Plebeian should have their Talents and Merit, must not he be suffered to go-

must Must we rather chuse such Governors as the Deawis? Those excellent Magistrates, I think, were mostly wices. But we find, that upon the Abolition of the Power, no Commoner was chosen to the Consulate. And of that? Before Numa's Time there were no Pontifices Before Servius Tullius's Days, there was no Census, Division of the People into Classes and Centuries. Who heard of Confuls before the Expulsion of Tarquin the **11** Dictators, we all know, are of modern Invention to are the Offices of Tribunes, Ædiles, Questore. hin these ten Years we have made Decemvirs, and we have ade them. Is nothing to be done but what has been done That very Law forbidding Marriages of Patricians Pleasians, is not that a new Thing? Was there any Law before the Decemvirs enacted it? And a most reful one it is in a free State. Such Marriages, it feems, that the pure Blood of the Nobility! Why, if they t fo, let them take care to match their Sisters and zhters with Men of their own Sort. No Plebeian will Violence to the Daughter of a Patrician. Those are bits for our prime Nobles. There is no need to fear we shall force any body into a Contract of Marriage. to make an express Law to prohibit Marriages of Patri-: with Plebeians, what is this, but to shew the utmost tempt of us, and to declare one Part of the Community • impure and unclean? Why don't they lay their wife is together to hinder rich Folks from matching with They talk to us of the Confusion there will be in Fa-3, if this Statute should be repealed. I wonder they make a Law against a Commoner's living near a Noan, or going the same Road that he is going, or being nt at the same Feast, or appearing in the same Market-They might as well pretend, that these things make fusion in Families, as that Inter-marriages will do it. not every one know, that the Children will be ranked rding to the Quality of the Father, let him be a Patrior Plebeian? In short, it is manifest enough, that we nothing in View but to be treated as Men and Citizens; can they who oppose our Demand have any Motive to but the Love of Domineering. I would fain know of Consuls and Patricians, is the Sovereign Power in the le of Rome, or in You? I hope you will allow, that the le can at their Pleasure either make a Law, or repeal And will you then, as soon as any Law is proposed to , pretend to lift them immediately for the War, and OL. I.

hinder them from giving their Suffrages by leading them into the Field? Hear me, Consuls: Whether the News of the War you talk of be true, or whether it be only a false Rumour, fpread abroad for nothing but a Colour to fend the People out of the City, I declare, as Tribunc, that this People, who have already so often spilt their Blood in our Country's Cause, are again ready to arm for its Desence and its Glory, if they may be restored to their natural Rights, and you will no longer treat us like Strangers in our own Country. But if you account us unworthy of your Alliance by Inter-marriages, if you will not fuffer the Entrance to the chief Offices in the State to be open to all Persons of Merit, indifferently, but will confine your choice Magistrates to the Senate alone; talk of Wars as much as ever you please; paint in your ordinary Discourses the League and Power of our Enemies ten times more dreadful than you do now; I declare that this People, whom you so much despise, and to whom you are nevertheless indebted for all your Victories, shall never more inlist themselves; not a Man of them shall take Arms, not a Man of them shall expose his Life for imperious Lords, with whom he can neither there the Dignities of the State, nor in private Life have any Alliance by Marriage.

LESSON IX.

You have seen by the foregoing Speeches, the Progress of the Struggles between the Patricians and the Plebeians, which continued for many Years; the People always encroaching more and more upon the Privileges of the Patricians, till at length all the great Offices of the State became equally common to the one and the other. The following Speech, which was spoken above a hundred Years after the foregoing one, may serve as an Instance and a Proof of that great Simplicity of Manners, public Virtue, and noble Spirit, which raised that People to that Height of Power and Dominion, which they afterwards attain'd. The Occasion of it was this. The Tarentines having a Quarrel with the Romans, invite Pyrrhus King of Epirus to their Assistance, who lands with his Forces in Italy, and defeats the Roman Army under the Command of Lavinus. After this Battle,

Fabritius, with two other Roman Senators, is sent to Tarentum to treat with Pyrrhus about the Exchange of Prisoners. The King, being inso med of the great Abilities, and great Poverty of Fabritius, hinted, in a private Conversation with bim, the Unsuitableness of such Poverty to such distinguished Merit, and that if he would assist him to negotiate with the Romans an honourable Peace for the Tarentines, and go with him to Epirus, he would bestow such Riches upon him, as should put him. at least, upon an Equality with the most epulent Nobles of Rome. The Answ r of Fabritius was to this Esset.

S to my Poverty, you have indeed, Sir, been rightly inform'd. My whole Estate consists in a House of but mean Appearance, and a little Spot of Ground, from which, by my own Labour, I draw my Support. But if, by any Means, you have been perfuaded to think, that this Poverty makes me less considered in my Country, or in any Degree unhappy, you are extremely deceived. I have no Reason to complain of Fortune, she supplies me with all that Nature requires; and if I am without Superfluities, I am also free from the Desire of them. With these, I confess, I should be more able to succour the Necessitous, the only Advantage for which the Wealthy are to be envied; but as small as my Possessions are. I can still contribute something to the Support of the State, and the Assistance of my Friends. With regard to Honours, my Country places me, poor as I am, upon a Level with the richest: For Rome knows no Qualifications for great Employments but Virtue and Ability. She appoints me to officiate in the most august Ceremonies of Religion; she entrusts me with the Command of her Armies; she confides to my Care the most important Negotiations. My Poverty does not lessen the Weight and Influence of my Counsels in the Senate; the Roman People honour me for that very Poverty which you confider as a Difgrace; they know the many Opportunities I have had in War, to enrich myself without incurring Cenfure; they are convinced of my difinterested Zeal for their Prosperity; and, if I have any thing to complain of in the Return they make, it is only the Excess of their Applause. What Value then can I fet upon your Gold and Silver? What King can add any thing to my Fortune? Always attentive to discharge the Duties incumbent on me, I have a Mind free from Self-Reproach, and I have an Honest Fame.

LESSON X.

The following Speeches are of a different kind from any of the foregoing. They are the Speeches of two great Generals, at the Head of their Armies, before an Engagement. It was at the Beginning of the second Punic War, that Hannibal the Carthaginian General made that surprizing March over the Alps with his Army, and entered Italy. He was met near the Banks of the Po by Publius Scipio, with the Roman Army. The two Generals are jaid to bave conceived a bigh Opinion of each other. Hannibal's Name bad been long renowned; and that Scipio must be a Captain of eminent Worth, the Carthaginian bad well concluded, from the Romans having chefen bim, preferably to all others, to be bis Oppenent. But this mutual Impression was become much stronger, by the bardy Enterprize of the one to march over the Alps, and the happy Execution of it; and the expeditions Courage of the other in coming from the Banks of the Rhone, to meet him, at the Foot of those Mountains. But Scipio, who was but newly appointed their General, thought proper to affemble bis Soldiers before the * Engagement, and endeavoured to animate their Courage by the following Wards.

WERE you, Soldiers, the same Army which I had with me in Gaul, I might well forbear saying any thing to you at this time. For what occasion could there be to use Exhortation to a Cavalry, that had so signally vanquished the Squadrons of the Enemy upon the Rhone, or to Legions, by whom that same Enemy slying before them to avoid a Battle, did in effect consess themselves conquered? But as these Troops, having been inrolled for Spain, are there with my Brother Cneius, making War under my Auspices (as was the Will of the Senate and People of Rome) In that you might have a Consul for your Captain against Hannibal and the Carthaginians, have freely offered myself for this War. You then have a new General, and I a new Army. In this

^{*} This Battle was fought on the Banks of the Ticin, a small River which runs into the Po, and is called the Battle of the Ticin. Scipie received a dangerous Wound, and had been left upon the Place, if his Son, a mere Youth, (afterwards the great Africanus) had not, by a surprizing a first of Courage, brought him off. The Romans were obliged to retire.

this Circumstance a few Words from me to you will be neither improper nor unseasonable. And that you may not be unapprized of what fort of Enemies you are going to encounter, or of what is to be feared from them, they are the very same whom, in a former War, you vanquished both by Land and Sea; the same from whom you took Sicily and Sardinia, and who have been these twenty Years your Tributaries. You will not, I presume, march against these Men with only that Courage, with which you are wont to face other Enemies, but with a certain Anger and Indignation, such as you would feel, if you saw your Slaves on a sudden rise up in Arms against you. Conquered and enslaved, it is not Boldness, but Necessity that urges them to Battle: Unless you can believe that those who avoided fighting when their Army was entire, have acquired better Hope by the Loss of two thirds of their Horse and Foot.

in the Passage of the Alps.

But you heard perhaps, that, though they are few in Number, they are Men of stout Hearts and robust Bodies. Heroes of such Strength and Vigour, as nothing is able to resist.-Mere Effigies! nay Shadows of Men! Wretches emaciated with Hunger, and benumbed with Cold! bruised and battered to pieces among the Rocks and craggy Cliffs! their Weapons broke, and their Horses weak and foundered I Such are the Cavalry, and fuch the Infantry, with which you are going to contend; not Enemies, but the Fragments of Enemies. There is nothing which I more apprehend, than that it will be thought, Hannibal was vanquished by the Alps, before we had any Conflict with him. But perhaps it was fitting that so it should be; and that with a People and a Leader, who had violated Leagues and Covenants, the Gods themselves, without Man's Help, should begin the War, and bring it to a near Conclufion; and that we, who, next to the Gods, have been injured and offended, should happily finish what they have begun. I need not be in any fear, that you should suspect me of saying these things merely to encourage you, while inwardly I have different Sentiments. What hindered me from going into Spain? that was my Province; where I should have had the less-dreaded Asarabal, not Hannibal to deal with. But hearing, as I pailed along the Coast of Gaul, of this Enemy's March, I landed my Troops, sent the Horse torward, and pitched my Camp upon the Rhone. A Part of my Cavalry encountered and defeated that of the Enemy; my Infantry not being able to overtake theirs, which fled before us, I returned to my Fleet, and with all the Expedition I could use in so long a Voyage by Sea and Land, am come to meet them FZ

at the Foot of the Alps. Was it then my Inclination to avoid a Contest with this tremendous Hannibal? And have I lit upon him only by accident and unawares? Or am I come on purpose to challenge him to the Combat? I would gladly try, whether the Earth, within theft twenty Years, has brought forth a new kind of Cartinginians, or whether they be the same fort of Mon who sought at the Fcates; and whom, at Eryx, you fufficied to redeem themselves at eighteen Denarii per Head: Whether this Hannibal, for Labours and Journeys, be, as he would be thought, the Rival of Hercules; or whether he be what his Father left him, a Tributary, a Vaffal, a Slave of the Reman People. Did not the Confedurates of his wicked Deed at Saguntum torment him, and make him desperate, he would have some Regard, if not to his conquered Country, yet surely to his own Family, to his Father's Memory, to the Treaty written with Arthur's own Hand. We might have starved them in Fryx; we might have passed into Africa with our victorious Fleet, and in .. few Days have destroyed Car-At their humble Supplication we pardoned them; we released them, when they were closely shut up without a Poffibility of escaping; we made Peace with them when they were conquered. When they were diffressed by the African War, we confidered them, we treated them as a People under our Protection. And what is the Return they make us for all these Favours? Under the Conduct of a hare-brained young Man, they come hither to overturn our State, and lay waste our Country. - I could wish indeed, that it were not so; and that the War we are now engaged in concerned only our own Glory, and not our Preferration. But the Contest at present is not for the Possessian of Sicily and Sardinia, but of Italy itseif. Nor is there, behind us, another Army which, if we should not prove the Conquerors, may make head against our victorious Enemies. There are no more Alps for them to pass, which might give us leifure to raise new Forces. No. Soldiers, here you must make your Stand, as if you were just now before the Walls of Rome. Let every one reflect, that he is now to defend, not his own Person alone, but his Wife, his Children, his helplefs Infants. Yet let not private Confiderations alone possess our Minds; let us remember that the Eyes of the Senate and People of Rome are upon us, and that as our Force and Courage shall now prove, such will be the Fortune of that City, and of the Roman Empire.

LESSON XI.

Hannibal, on the other Side, made use of a new kind of Rhetoric to inspire his Soldiers with Resolution. He gave Arms to several Mountaineers whom he had taken Prisoners in his Passage over the Alps, and proposed to them to sight two and two to the Death of one of them, in the Sight of his Army; promising Liberty and a compleat Suit of Armour, with a Warborse, to such of them as came off victorious. From the Joy with which the Prisoners accepted these Conditions, and the Sentiments which Hannibal observed in his Troops on beholding these Consists, he took Occasion to give them a more lively Image of their present Situation; which laid them under the absolute Necessity of conquering or dying. His Speech was to this Effect.

IF in the Estimation of your own Fortune, you will but bear the same Mind which you just now did, in contemplating the Fortune of others, the Victory, Soldiers, is ours. What you have feen, was not a mere Shew for Amusement, but a Representation of your own real Condition. I know not whether you or your Prisoners be encompassed by Fortune with the stricter Bonds and Necessities. Two Seas enclose you on the right and left; -not a Ship to fly to for escaping. Before you is the Po, a River broader and more rapid than the Rhone; behind you are the Alps, over which, even when your Numbers were undiminished, you were hardly able to force a Passage. Here then, Soldiers, you must either conquer or die, the very first Hour you meet the Enemy. But the same Fortune which has thus laid you under the Necessity of fighting, has let before your Eyes those Rewards of Victory, than which no Men are ever wont to wish for greater from the immortal Gods. Should we by our Valour recover only Sicily and Sardinia, which were ravish'd from our Fathers, those would be no inconsiderable Prizes. Yet, what are those? The Wealth of Rome, whatever Riches the has heaped together in the Spoils of Nations, all thefe, with the Masters of them, will be yours. You have been long enough employed in driving the Cattle upon the vast Mountains of Lusitania and Celtiberia; you have hitherto met with no Reward worthy of the Labours and Dangers you have undergone. The Time is now come to reap the full Recompence of your toilsome Marches over so many Mountains and Rivers, and through so many Nations all of F 4

them in Arms. This is the Place, which Fortune has appointed to be the Limits of your Labours; it is here that you will finish your glorious Wartare, and receive an ample Recompence of your compleated Service. For I would not have you imagine, that Victory will be as difficult as the Name of a ROMAN WAR is great and founding. It has often happened that a despited Enemy has given a bloody Battle, and the most renowned Kings and Nations have by a finall Force been overthrown. And if you but take away the Glitter of the Raman Name, what is there, wherein they may fland in Competition with vin & For (to fay nothing of your Service in War for twenty Years together with fo much Valour and Success) from the very Pillars of Hercalls, from the Ocean, from the utmest Bounds of the Earth, through so many warlike Nations of Searn and Gaul, are you not come Fither victorious? And with whom are you now to fight? With raw Soldiers, an anduciplined Army, beaten, vanguished, beliezed by the Gand the very laft Summer, an Army unknown to their Leader, and unacquainted with him.

Or thail I, who was Irm, I might almost fav, but certainly brenght up in the Tent of n. Father, that most excellent General, thall I, the Conqueror of Spain and Gaul, and not only of the Alien Nations, but, which is greater yet, of the Mys themselves, shall I compare myself with this Half-year Captain? A Captain, before whom should one place the two Armies, without their Enfigns, I am perfunded he would not know to which of them he is Conful? I citeem it no finali Advantage, Soldiers, that there is not one among you, who has not often been an Eye-witness of my Exploits in War; not one, of whole Valour I myfelf have not been a Spectator, fo as to be able to name the Times and Places of his noble Atchievements; that with Soldiers, whom I have a thousand times praised and rewarded, and whose Pupil I was, before I became their General, I shall march against an Army of Men Strangers to one another.

On what Side soever I turn my Eyes, I behold all full of Courage and Strength; a Feteran Insantry, a most gallant Cavalry; you, my Allies, most faithful and valiant; you Garthaginians, whom not only your Country's Cause, but the justest Anger impels to Battle. The Hope, the Courage of Assailants is always greater, than of those who act upon the Desensive. With hostile Banners display'd, you are come down upon Italy; you bring the War. Grief, Injuries, Indignities fire your Minds, and spur you forward to Revenge.—

First

First they demanded me; that I, your General should be deliver'd up to them; next, all you, who had fought at the Siege of Saguntum; and we were to be put to Death by the extremest Torrures. Proud and cruel Nation! Every thing must be yours, and at your Disposal? You are to prescribe to us, with whom we shall make War, with whom we shall make Peace? You are to fet us Bounds; to shut us up within Hills and Rivers; but you, you are not to observe the Limits which yourselves have fix'd? Pass not the IBERUS. What next? Touch not the SAGUNTINES; SAGUNTUM is upon the IBERUS, move not a Step towards that City. Is it a small Matter that you have deprived us of our ancient Possessions, we shall yield Spain; and then—you will pass into Africa.
Will pass, did I say?—This very Year they order'd one of their Consuls into Africa, the other into Spain. No, Soldiers, there is nothing left for us but what we can vindicate with our Swords. Come on then. Be Men. The Romans may with more Safety be Cowards; they have their own Country behind them, have Places of Refuge to fly to, and are secure from Danger in the Roads thither: but for you, there is no middle Fortune between Death and Victory. Let this be but well fix'd in your Minds, and once again, I fay, you are Conquerors.

LE'SSON XII.

The two following Speeches are those preceding the Battle of Zama; which concluded the second Punic War to the Advantage of the Romans, after it had lasted 17 Years. They are different from the two former, as they relate to a Treaty of Peace. The two Generals were Hannibal and the samous Scipio Africanus, Son of the former Scipio. An Interview was desired by Hannibal, and agreed to by Scipio. The Place pitch'd upon was a large Plain between the two Camps, entirely open, and where no Ambush could be laid. The two Generals rode thither, escorted by an equal Number of Guards; from whom separating, and each attended only by an Interpreter, they met in the Mid-way. Both remain'd for a while silent, viewing each other with mutual Admiration. Hannibal at length spoke thus.

S INCE Fate has so ordain'd it, that I, who began the War, and who have been so often on the Point of ending

And tis boped they will be useful and agreeable to Boys, as they will serve to give a Variety to their Tasks, to bring them acquainted with the higher and more poetical of their own Language. I have taken some small Liberties and there in altering an obsolete Word, or even a Sent when I thought the Construction of it (which sometimes bay in Shakespear) too bard or too obscure for Boys to underso But this Liberty, it will be perceived, I have used but very ringly; and never with the Presumption of hoping to a Shakespear, but only to make him more fit and proper for Purtoses. With what Judgment the Speeches are chosen muself to the Determination of judicious Masters, who will be at berty to make use of any others, which they may think more protective or three last are given as Interludes for several Boy practise on together.

LESSON I.

The Progress of Life. From the Play called,
As you like it.

And all the Men and Women merely Players; L L the World's a Stage, They have their Exits, and their Entrances; And one Man in his Time plays many Parts: His Acts being feven Ages. At first the Infant, Mewling and puking in his Nurse's Arms: And then, the whining School-boy with his Satchel, And shining Morning Face, creeping like Snail Unwillingly to School. And then, the Lover; Sighing like Furnace, with a woeful Ballad Miade to his Mistress' Eyebrow. Then, a Soldier; Full of stronge Oaths, and bearded like the Pard, Jealous in Honous, successing the Bubble Reputation, Seeking the Bubble Reputation, And then, the Justice, In fair round Belly, with good Capon lin'd; With Fves tevere, and Beard of formal Cut, Full of wife Saws, and modern Instances, And so he plays his Part. The fixth Age shifts Into the lean and flipper'd Pantaloon, With Spectacles on Noie, and Pouch on Side;

On SPEAKING.

His youthful Hose well sav'd, a World too wide For his shrunk Shank; and his big manly Voice, Turning again towards childish Treble, pipes, And whistles in his Sound. Last Scene of all, That ends this strange eventful History, Is second Childishness, and mere Oblivion; Sans Teeth, sans Eyes, sans Taste, sans every thing.

LESSON II.

Hamlet's Meditation on Death.

Obe, or not to be: That is the Question.— Whether 'tis nobler in the Mind, to suffer The Stings and Arrows of outrageous Fortune; Or to take Arms against a Siege of Troubles, And by opposing end them?—To die—to sleep— No more: and by a Sleep, to fay, we end The Heart-ach, and the thousand natural Shocks That Flesh is Heir to; 'tis a Consummation Devoutly to be wish'd. To die-to sleep-To fleep?—perchance, to dream! ay, there's the Rub—. For in that Sleep of Death what Dreams may come, When we have shuffled off this mortal Coil, Must give us pause.—There's the Retrospect, That makes Calamity of so long Life. for who would bear the Whips and Scorn o' th' Time, Th' Oppressor's Wrong, the proud Man's Contumely, The Pangs of despis'd Love, the Law's Delay, The Insolence of Office, and the Spurns That patient Merit of th' Unworthy takes; hen he himself might his Quietus make with a bare Bodkin? Who would Fardles bear, groan and sweat under a weary Life? But that the Dread of fomething after Death, That undiscover'd Country, from whose Bourne No Traveller returns) puzzles the Will; And makes us rather bear those Ills we have, Than fly to others that we know not of. Thus Conscience does make Cowards of us all:

On SPEAKING.

And thus the native Hue of Refolution Is ficklied o'er with the pale Cast of Thought; And Enterprizes of great Pith and Moment, With this Regard their Current turn awry, And lost the Name of Action.

LESSON III.

A Speach of King Henry the Fourth, upon his receiving New in the Night, of the Rebellion of the Earl of Northumberland.

O W many Thoulands of my poorest Subjects Are at this Hour afleep! O gentle Sleep! Nature's fost Nurse, how have I frighted thee, That thou no more wilt weigh my Eye-lids down, And steep my Senses in Forgetsulness?
Why rather, Sleep, lyest thou in smoothy Hutts,
Upon uneasy Pallets stretching thee, And husht with buzzing Night-flies to thy Slumber; Than in the perfum'd Chambers of the Great, And lull'd with Sounds of sweetest Melody? O thou dull God! why lyest thou with the Vile In loathsome Beds, and leav'st the Kingly Couch Beneath rich Canopies of costly State, A Watch-case to a common Larum-bell? Wilt thou upon the high and giddy Math, Seal up the Ship-boy's Eyes, and rock his Brains, In Cradle of the rude imperious Surge; And in the Vifitation of the Winds, Who take the ruffian Billows by the Top, Curling their monitrous Heads, and hanging them With deafening Clamours in the slippery Shrouds, That, with the Hurly, Death itself awakes?-Can'st thou, O partial Sleep! give thy Repose To the wet Sea-boy, in an Hour so rude? And, in the calmest, and the stillest Night, With all Appliances and Means to-boot, Deny it to a King? Then, happy lowly Clowa? Uneasy lies the Head that wears a Crown.

LESSON IV.

When Henry the Fourth was on his Death-hed, he ordered the Crown to be laid by him on his Pillow. The Prince of Wales, who had hitherto lived a very wild and diffilute Life, (though afterwards he was the famous Henry the Fifth, who conquered France) fitting by his Bed-fide, and imagining his Father was dead, took the Crown from his Pillow, reflecting and moralizing upon it, and retired into the next Room very forrowful. The King awaking, called for his Crown and Son, who entering haftily the Room, fays, I never thought to hear you speak again; upon which the King takes occasion to rebuke him in the following Speech. [The Prince of Wales's Answer to be spoken by another Boy.]

R. Henry. T HY Wish was Father, Harry, to that Thought:

I flay too long by thee, I weary thee. Dost thou so hunger for my empty Chair, That thou wilt needs invest thee in my Honours, Before thy Hour be ripe? O foolish Youth! Thou fuck'st the Greatness that will overwhelm thee. Stay but a little, for my Cloud of Dignity Is held from falling with so weak a Wind, That it will quickly drop, my Day is done. Thou hast stol'n That, which, after a few Hours, Were thine without Offence; and at my Death Thou hast seal'd up my Expectation. Thy Life did manifest, thou lov'dst me not; And thou wilt have me die affur'd of it. Thou hid'it a thousand Daggers in thy Thoughts, Which thou hast whetted on thy stony Heart, To stab at half an Hour of my frail Life. What! canst thou not forbear me half an Hour? Then get thee gone, and dig my Grave thyfelf, And bid the merry Bells ring to thy Ear That Thou art crowned, not that I am dead. Let all the Tears, that should bedew my Herse, Be Drops of Balm to fanctify thy Head; Only compound me with forgotten Duft, Give that which gave thee Life, unto the Worms. Pluck down my Officers, break my Decrees; For now a Time is come to mock at Form;

Henry the Fifth is crown'd: Up, Vanity! Down roval State! all you fage Counsellors, hence; And at the English Court affemble now, From ev'ry Region, Apes of Idleness: Now, neighbour Confines, purge you of your Scum; Have you a Ruffian that will swear, drink, dance, Revel the Night, rob, murder, and commit The oldest Sins the newest kind of Ways? Be happy, he will trouble you no more: England shall give him Office, Honour, Might: For the Fifth Harry from curb'd Licence plucks The Muzzle of Reffraint; and the wild Dog Shall flesh his Tooth on every Innocent. O my poor Kingdom, fick with Civil Blows! When that my Care would not withhold thy Riots, What wilt thou do when Riot is thy Care? O, thou wilt be a Wilderness again, Peopled with Wolves, thy old Inhabitants.

P. Henry. O pardon me, my Liege! but for my Tears I had forestall'd this dear and deep Rebuke, Ere you with Grief had spoke, and I had heard The Course of it so far. There is your Crown; And he that wears the Crown immortally, Long guard it yours! If I affect it more, Than as your Honour, and as your Renown, Let me no more from this Obedience rife, Which my most true and inward-duteous Spirit Teacheth this proftrate and exterior Bending. Heav'n witness with me, when I here came in, And found no Course of Breath within your Majesty, How cold it struck my Heart! If I do feign, O let me in my present Wildness die, And never live to shew th' incredulous World The noble Change that I have purposed. Coming to look on you, thinking you dead, (And dead almost, my Liege, to think you were) I trake unto the Crown as having Senfe, And thus upbraided it. "The Care on thee depending " Hath fed upon the Body of my Father." Accusing it, I put it on my Head, To try with it (as with an Enemy, That had before my Face murder'd my Father) The Quarrel of a true inheritor. But it it did affect my Blood with Joy, -

LESSON V.

The Speech of King Henry the Fifth at the Siege of Harfleur.

NCE more unto the Breach, dear Friends, once more, Or close the Wall up with the English Dead. n Peace there's nothing fo becomes a Man u modest Stillness and Humility: but when the Blast of War blows in our Ears, then imitate the Action of the Tiger; tiffen the Sinews, fummon up the Blood, liquife fair Nature with hard favour'd Rage; then lend the Eye a terrible Aspect; at it pry o'er the Portage of the Head, the the Brass Cannon: let the Brow o'erwhelm it, od fearfully as doth a galled Rock ethang and jutty his confounded Base, will'd with the wild and wasteful Ocean. ow fet the Teeth, and stretch the Nostril wide; old hard the Breath, and bend up every Spirit o his full Height. Now on, you noblest English, hose Blood is fetch'd from Fathers of War-proof; thers, that, like so many Alexanders, eve in these Parts from Morn till Even fought, and theath'd their Swords for lack of Argument. Monour not your Mothers; now attest, at those, whom you call'd Fathers, did beget you. * Copy now to Men of groffer Blood, ed teach them how to war. And you, good Yeomen, hose Limbs were made in England, shew us here be Metal of your Pasture: Let us swear hat you are worth your Breeding, which I doubt not: ir there is none of you so mean and base, hat hath not noble Lustre in your Eyes; I fee Vol. L

I fee you stand like Greyhounds in the Slips, Straining upon the Start. The Game's afoot; Follow your Spirit; and, upon this Charge, Cry, God for Harry! England! and St. George!

LESSON VI.

Part of the Speech spoken by the Chorus in the Play of Henry the Fifth. The Time supposed to be the Night before the Battle of Agincourt.

TOW let Imagination form a Time, When creeping Murmur, and the poring Dark, Fills the wide Veffel of the Universe. From Camp to Camp, through the foul Womb of Night, The Hum of either Army stilly sounds; That the fixt Centinels almost receive The fecret Whispers of each other's Watch. Fire answers Fire; and through their paly Flames Each Battle sees the other's umber'd Face. Steed threatens Steed, in high and boastful Neighs Piercing the Night's dull Ear, and from the Tents The Armourers, accomplishing the Knights, With bufy Hammers clofing Rivets up, Give dreadful Note of Preparation. The Country Cocks do crow, the Clocks do toll: And (the third Hour of droufy Morning nam'd) Proud of their Numbers and secure in Soul, The confident and over-hasty French Do chide the cripple tardy-paced Night, Who, like a foul and ugly Witch, does limp So tediously away. The poor condemned English Like Sacrifices, by their watchful Fires Sit patiently, and inly ruminate The Morning's Danger: and their Danger fad, Set forth in lank-lean Cheeks and War-worn Coats, Presenteth them unto the gazing Moon So many horrid Ghotls-Who now beholds The royal Captain of this ruin'd Band Walking from Watch to Watch, from Tent to Tent, Let him cry, Fraise and Clory on his Head! For forth he gees and vifits all his Hoft, hads them Good-morrow with a modest Smile,

And calls them Brothers, Friends, and Countrymen. Upon his royal Face there is no Note, How dread an Army hath enrounded him: Nor doth he give up the least Jot of Colour Unto the weary and all-watched Night; But freshly looks, and over-bears Fatigue With chearful Semblance and sweet Majesty: That ev'ry Wretch, pining and pale before, Beholding him, plucks Comfort from his Looks.

LESSON VII.

The Speech of Henry the Fifth at the Battle of Agincourt, where be gained that glorious Victory, which compleated the Conquest of France, and which is so highly celebrated by all our Historians, as he encountered near sixty thousand Frenchmen, with so small a Number as 12000 English. The Earl of Westmoreland saying,

O that we now had here
But one ten thousand of those Men in England,
That do no Work to-day!

King Henry, with a noble and undaunted Spirit, spoke as follows.

THAT's he, that wishes so? My Cousin Westmoreland? No, my fair Cousin, If we are mark'd to die, we are enow To do our Country Loss; and if to live, The fewer Men, the greater share of Honour. God's Will! I pray thee wish not one Man more. I am not the least covetous of Gold; Nor care I who doth feed upon my Cost; It yerns me not if Men my Garments wear; Such outward Things dwell not in my Desire: But if it be a Sin to covet Honour, I am the most offending Soul alive. No, no, my Lord, wish not a Man from England: I would not lose so great, so high an Honour As one Man more, methinks, should share from me, For the best Hopes I have. Don't wish one more: Rather proclaim it, Westmoreland, throughout my Host, That he who hath no Stomach to this Fight, G 2

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SPEAN ، his Paurine : النظام الم Contor Parising Prince ne die in thei Man's Company, Fellowship to die with us. lives this Day, and comes fale home, a tip-toe when this Day is nam'd, him at the Name of Cripien. clives this Day, and feet old Age, con the Vigil feelt his Teighbours To-morrow is Saint Confirm Il he Arip his Sleeve, and them his Scars: n forget; yet thail not all forget, evil remember, with Advantages, Then shall our Names, ar in their Mouths as Ficuthold Words, de King, Beifgrei 2nd Exercise wick and Talber, Samera and Giracenter, a their flowing Cups irellity remember d. s Story shall the good Man reach his Son, as story man the good war reach mis sound of Criffin, Criffin the Ending of the Worlds on this Day to the Ending of the Reach of We have the first his Bland of Brothers:

We have the first his Bland of Brothers: for he, to-day that sheds his Blood with me, Shall be my shall gentle his Condition.

This Day sharman in Fractory now asked And Gentlemen in English, now a-bed, And bold their Manhoods Cheep While any fpeaks, Who fought with us upon Saint Cripian's Day. LESSON VIII. The Fall of Cardinal Wolfey. AREVEL, a long Farewel to all my Greatness. RAREWEL, a long tarewei to an my chemical forth.

This is the State of Man; to-day he puts forth.

This is the Hone: to-morrow bloffoms, The tender Leaves of Hope; to-morrow blottoms, And bezis his blacking Fruit a killing Fruit. And pezzy his premaing reproducts mick upon him?

The third Day comes a Fresh, a killing full forely

The third Day comes a good casy Man, full forely

And when he thinks, good casy Mis Root;

And when he thinks, a ripening, mps his Root;

His Greatnes, is a ripening, mps And And then falls, as I do. I have ventur'd,
Like little wanton Boys, that swim on Bladders,
These many Summers, in a Sea of Glory:
But far beyond my Depth: my high-blown Pride
At length broke under me; and now has lest me,
Weary, and old with Service, to the Mercy
Of a rude Stream, that must for ever hide me.
Vain Pomp and Glory of this World, I hate ye;
I feel my Heart new-open'd. Oh, how wretched
Is that poor Man that hangs on Princes Favours!
There is, betwixt that Smile which we aspire to,
That sweet Regard of Princes, and our Ruin,
More Pangs and Fears than War and Women know;
And when he falls, he falls like Lucifer,
Never to hope again.

Enter Cromwell, standing amazed.

Why, how now, Cromwell! Crom. I have no Power to speak, Sir. Wolf. What, amaz'd At my Misfortunes? Can thy Spirit wonder. A great Man should decline? Nay, if you weep, I'm fallen indeed. Crom. How does your Grace? Wolf. Why, well; Never so truly happy, my good *Cromwell*. I know myself now, and I feel within me A Peace above all earthly Dignities; A still and quiet Conscience. The King has cur'd me, I humbly thank his Grace, and, from these Shoulders, These ruin'd Pillars, out of Pity taken A Load would fink a Navy, too much Honour. O, 'tis a Burden, Cromwell, 'tis a Burden, Too heavy, for a Man that hopes for Heav'n. Crom. I'm glad your Grace makes that right Use of it. Wolf. I hope I do: I'm able now, methinks, Out of a Fortitude of Soul I feel, T' endure more Miseries, and greater far Than my weak-hearted Enemies dare offer. What News abroad? Crom. The heaviest, and the worst, Is your Displeasure from the King. Wolf. God bless him!

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Welf. That's somewhat sudden—
But he's a learned Man. May he continue
Long in his Highness' Favour, and do Justice
For Truth's sake and his Conscience, that his Bones,
When he has run his Course, and sleeps in Blessings,
May have a Tomb of Orphans Tears wept on him!
What more?

Crom. That Cranmer is return'd with Welcome; Install'd Lord Archbishop of Canterbury.

Wolf. That's News, indeed.
Crom. Last, that the Lady Ann,
Whom the King hath in Secrecy long married,
This Day was view'd in open as his Queen,
Going to Chapel, and the Voice is now
Only about her Coronation.

Wolf. There was the Weight that pull'd me down.

O Cromwell,

The King has gone beyond me: all my Glories In that one Woman I have loft for ever.

No Sun shall ever usher forth my Honours,
Or gild again the noble Troops, that waited
Upon my Smiles. Go, get thee from me, Cromwell;
I am a poor fall'n Man, unworthy now
To be thy Master. Seek the King; I've told him
What, and how true thou art: he will advance thee;
Some little Memory of me will stir him;
I know his noble Nature, not to let
Thy hopeful Service perish too. Good Cromwell,
Neglect him not, be mindful, and provide
For thine own future Sasety.

Grom. O, my Lord,
Must I then leave you? Must I needs forgo
So good, so noble, and so true a Master?
Bear witness, all that have not Hearts of Iron,
With what a Sorrow Gromwell leaves his Lord.
The King shall have my Service; but my Prayers

For ever, and for ever shall be yours.

Welf. Cronwell, I did not think to shed a Tear In all my Miseries; but thou hast forc'd me, Out of thy honest Truth, to play the Woman—Let's dry our Eyes: and thus far hear me, Cronwell; Mark by my Fall, and that which ruin'd me, And when I am forgotten, as I shall be, And sleep in dull cold Marble, where no mention Of me must more be heard: say then, I taught thee;

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Say, Wolfey, that once rode the Waves of Glory, And founded all the Depths and Shoals of Honour, Found thee a Way, out of this Wreck, to rise in; A fure and fafe one, tho' thy Master mis'd it. Cromwell, I charge thee, fling away Ambition; By that Sin fell the Angels; how can Man then The Image of his Maker) hope to win by't? Love thyself last, cherish those Hearts that wait thee; Corruption wins not more than Honesty. Still in thy right Hand carry gentle Peace, To filence envious Tongues. Be just, and fear not. Let all the Ends thou aim'st at, be thy Country's, Thy God's, and Truth's: Then if thou fall'st, O Cromwell, Thou fall'st a blessed Martyr. Serve the King; And, prithee, lead me in -There take an Inventory of all I have; To the last Penny, 'tis the King's. My Robe, And my Integrity to Heaven, is all I now dare call my own. O Cromwell, Cromwell, Had I but ferv'd my God with half the Zeal I ferv'd my King, he would not in mine Age Have left me naked to mine Enemies. Crem. Good Sir, have Patience. Wolf. So I have. Farewel The Hopes of Court, my Hopes are fix'd on Heaven.

LESSON IX.

The Quarrel of Brutus and Cassius in the Play of Julius Cæsar.

Cassius. HAT you have wrong'd me, doth appear in this, You have condemn'd and noted Lucius Pella, For taking Bribes here of the Sardians; Wherein, my Letter (writ on his behalf, Because I knew the Man) was disregarded.

Brutus. You wrong'd yourself to write in such a Cause.

Cass. In such a Time as this, it is not meet
That every nice Offence should bear its Comment.

Brut. Nay, let me tell you, Cassius, you yourself
Are much suspected of an itching Palm;
And that you sell your Offices for Gold,
To Undeservers.

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On SPEAKING.

Cef. I an itching Palm?

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You know that you are Brutus, that speak this; Or, by the Gods, this Speech were else your last.

Brut. The Name of Casfius honours this Corruption,

And Chaftisement doth therefore hide its Head.

Caf. Chastisement!

Brut. Remember March, the Ides of M:rch remember! Did not great Julius bleed for Justice sake?

What Villain touch'd his Body, that did stab, And not for Justice? What, shall one of us.

And not for Justice? What, shall one of us, That struck the foremost Man of all the World,

But for supporting Robbers; shall we now Contaminate our Fingers with base Bribes?

And fell the mighty Meed of our large Honours
For fo much Trash, as may be grasped thus?—

I had rather be a Dog, and bay the Moon,

That such a Roman.

Caf. Brutus, bay not me;

I'll not endure it; I am a Soldier. I, Older in Practice; abler than yourself

To make Conditions.

Brut. Go to; you are not, Cossius,

Caf. I am.

Brut. I say you are not.

Caf. Urge me no more, I shall forget myself———
Have mind upon your Health——— tempt me no farther.

Brut. Away, flight Man!

Caf. Is't possible?

Brut. Hear me, for I will speak.

Must I give way and room to your rash Choler?

Shall I be frighted when a Madman stares?

Caf. O Gods! must I endure all this?

Brut. All this! ay, more. Fret till your proud Heart break;

Go, shew your Slaves how choleric you are,

And make your Bondmen tremble.

Must I observe you? Must I stand and crouch

Under your testy Humour? By the Gods, You shall digest the Venom of your Spleen,

The it do fall you: For from this Day forth,

I'll use you for my Mirth, yea, for my Laughter, When you are waspish.

When you are waspish.

Cas. Is it come to this?

Brut. You say, you are a better Soldier? Let it appear so; make your Vaunting true, it shall please me well. For mine own part, ill be glad to learn of noble Men. s. You wrong me every way—you wrong me, Brutus; I an elder Soldier; not a better. I say, better ?rud. If you did, I care not. of. When Cafar liv'd, he durft not thus have mov'd me. rut. Peace, Peace, you durst not so have tempted him. if. I durst not !rut. No: of. What! durst not tempt him? rut. For your Life you durst not. If. Do not prefume too much upon my Love; y do that I shall be forry for. rut. You have done that, you should be forry for. re is no Terror, Cassius, in your Threats; I am arm'd fo strong in Honesty, t they pass by me, as the idle Wind, ich I respect not. I did send to you certain Sums of Gold, which you deny'd me; I can raise no Money by vile Means; leaven, I had rather coin my Heart, drop my Blood for Drachma's, than to wring n the hard Hands of Pealants their vile Trash, iny Indirection. I did fend you for Gold to pay my Legions, ich you deny'd me; was that done like Cassius? ild I have answer'd Caius Cassius so? en Marcus Brutus grows so covetous ock fuch rascal Counters from his Friends, ady, Gods, with all your Thunderbolts, him to pieces, if. I deny'd you not. nd. You did. I did not—he was but a Fool, brought my Answer back-Brutus hath riv'd my Heart. iend should bear a Friend's Infirmities, Brutus makes mine greater than they are. Still you practife them on me. rut. I do not. . You love me not. rut. I do not like your Faults. .f. A friendly Eye could never see such Faults. "ut. A Flatt'rer's would not, tho' they do appear uge as high Olympus. Caf.

On SPEAKING.

Caf. Come, Authory, and young Otheroias, come;
Revenge yourselves alone on Caffias,
For Caffias is a-weary of the World;
Hated by one he loves; braved by his Brother;
Check'd like a Bondman; all his Faults observ'd;
Set in a Note-Book, learn'd, and conn'd by rote,
To cast into my Teeth. O I could weep
My Spirit from mine Eyes!—There is my Dagger,
And here my naked Breast—within, a Heart
Dearer than Plutus' Mine, richer than Gold;
If that thou need'st a Roman's, take it forth.
I, that deny'd thee Gold, will give my Heart;
Strike as thou didst at Cassar; for I know,
When thou didst hate him worst, thou lov'dst him better.
Than ever thou lov'dst Cassar.

Brut. Sheath your Dagger;
Be angry when you will, it shall have Scope;
Do what you will, Dishonour shall be Humour.
O Cassius, you are yoked with a Lamb,
That carries Anger, as the Flint bears Fire;
Who, much enforced, shews a hasty Spark,

And straight is cold again.

Caf. Hath Casfinus liv'd

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To be but Mirth and Laughter to his Brutus,
When Grief, and Blood ill-temper'd, vexeth him?
Brut. When I spoke that, I was ill-temper'd too.
Cas. Do you confess so much? Give me your Hand.
Brut. And my Heart too.

[Embreid]

Caf. O Brutus!

Brut. What's the matter?

Caf. Have you not Love enough to bear with me, When that rath Humour, which my Mother gave me, Makes me forgetful?

Brut. Yes, Cassius, and from henceforth When you are over-earnest with your Brutus, He'll think, your Mother chides, and pass it by.

LESSON X.

The Folly of Extravagance.

g several Scenes from Timon of Athens, somewhat altered, and thrown into one.

r Flavius the Steward, with Bills in his Hand, and feveral Creditors following him.

Enter Timon.

Creditor. My Lord, here is a Note of certain Dues. mon. Dues? whence are you? Cred. Of Athens here, my Lord. m. Go to my Steward. Cred. Please your Lordship, he hath put me off he Succession of new Days, this Month: Master is now urg'd by great Occasion, all in what's his own; and humbly prays t with your other noble Parts you'll fuit, ving him his Right. m. Mine honest Friend, ythee but repair to me to-morrow. Cred. Nay, good my Lordm. Contain thyself, good Friend. Cred. One Varre's Servant, my good Lord ---Cred. From Isidore, he prays your speedy Payment-Cred. If you did know, my Lord, my Master's Wants -Cred. 'Twas due on Forseiture six Weeks, and past-Cred. Your Steward puts me off, my Lord, and I fent expressly to your Lordship. m. Give me Breath. Come hither, Flavius. goes the World, that I am thus encounter'd 1 Claims of long-past Debts, of broken Bonds, And

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And the Detention of Men's lawful Rights, Against my Honour?

Flav. Please you Gentlemen, The Time is unagreeable to this Business; Your Importunity cease, till after Dinner, That I may make his Lordship understand

Wherefore you are not paid.

Tim. Do so, my Friends. [Exeunt Credi Come, Flavius, let me know, wherefore ere this, You have not fully laid my State before me? That I might so have rated my Expence, As I had leave of Means.

Flav. O my good Lord, At many times I brought in my Accounts, Laid them before you: You would throw them off, And fay, you found them in mine Honesty. When for some trifling Present, you have bid me Return so much, I've shook my Head, and wept: Yea, 'gainst th' Authority of Manners, pray'd you To hold your hand more close. My dear-lov'd Lord,

Tho' now you hear too late, even at this time The greatest of your Having lacks a half To pay your present Debts.

Tim. Let all my Land be fold.

Flav. 'Tis all engag'd; fome forfeited, and gone: And what remains will hardly stop the Mouth Of present Dues; the future comes apace; What shall defend the interim, and at length Hold good our Reckoning?

Tim. To Lacedamon did my Land extend. Were it all yours, to give it in a Breath, Flav. O, my good Lord, the World is but a Word;

How quickly were it gone!

Tim. You tell me true.

Flav. If you suspect my Husbandry, or Truth, Call me before the Auditors, And fet me on the Proofs. So the Gods bless me, When all our Offices have been opprest With riotous Feeders; when our Vaults have wept With drunken Spilth of Wine; when every Room Hath blaz'd with Lights, and bray'd with Minstrelsie; I have retir'd me to a filent Nook, And let mine Eyes on flow.

Tim. Pr'ythee, no more.

Heavens! have I said, from the Bounty of this Lord, How many prodigal Bits have Slaves and Peafants. This Night englutted? Who now is not Timon's? What Heart, Head, Sword, Force, Means, but is Lord Timon's! Great Timon's! noble, worthy, royal Timon's! Ah! when the Means are gone, that buy this Praise, The Breath is gone whereof this Praise is made: One Cloud of Winter Showers, These Flies are coucht.

Tim. Come, fermon me no farther. Unwisely, not ignobly, have I given. Why dost thou weep? Canst thou the Conscience lack, To think I shall lack Friends? Secure thy Heart, If I would broach the Vessels of my Love, And try the Gratitude of Friends by borrowing, Men and their Wealth could I as frankly use,

As I could bid thee speak.

Flav. Affurance bless your Thoughts! Tim. Nay, in some fort these Wants of mine are crown'd, And I account them Bleffings; for by these Shall I try Friends. You shall perceive how you Mistake my Fortunes: In my Friends I'm wealthy. Within there, ho! [Enter three Servants. I will dispatch you severally.

You to Lord Lucius—to Lord Lucullus you, I hunted with his Honour to-day—you to Sempronius—commend me to their Loves; and I am proud, fay, that my Occasions have found time to use 'em towards a Supply of Money; let the Request be fifty Talents. [Exunt the Servants.

Go you, Sir, to the Senators;

Of whom, for Service done the State, I have Deferv'd this Hearing; bid 'em send o' th' instant

A thousand Talents to me.

Flav. I've been bold, For that I knew it the most general way) To them to use your Signet and your Name; Jut they do shake their Heads, and I am here To richer in return,

Tim. Is it true? Can it be?

Flav. They answer in a joint and corporate Voice, hat now they are at Ebb, want Treasure, cannot o what they wou'd; are forry— you are honourableut yet they could have wish'd-they know notomething hath been amis-Vould all were well—'tis pity—

And

On SPEAKING.

And so attending other serious Matters,
After distasteful Looks, and these hard Fractions,
With certain Half-caps, and cold-moving Nods,
They froze me into Silence.

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Tim. You Gods reward 'em! I pr'ythee, Man, look cheerly. These old Fellows Have their Ingratitude in them hereditary; Their Blood is cak'd, 'tis cold, it seldom flows, And Nature, as it grows again toward Earth, Is sashion'd for the Journey, dull and heavy. But be not sad; no Blame belongs to thee: Thou'rt true and just. And never doubt, or think That Timon's Virtues 'mong his Friends can sink.

Flav. Would I could not: That Thought its Bounty's For Being free itself, it thinks all others so.

Enter first Servant.

Tim. Peace, here comes my Mcssenger from Lord Luculta Well, what Success?

I Serv. Soon as I faw my Lord Lucullus; Honest Frience fays he, you are very respectfully welcome. Fill me for Wine. And how does that honourable, compleat, free hearted Gentleman of Athens, thy very bountiful good Lor and Master? His Health, said I, is very well, Sir. I at right glad to hear, quoth he, his Health is well: And who half thou there under thy Cloak? A Gift, I warrant: Wh this hits well, I dreamt of a Siver Bason and Ewer last Nigh No, faith, my Lord, fays I, here's nothing but an empt Box, which, in my Lord's behalf, I come to entreat you Honour to supply; who having great and instant Occasion t use fifty Talents, hath sent to your Lordship to surnish him nothing doubting your present Assistance therein. Nothin doubting! fays he, with an alter'd Tone and Countenance alas, good Lord, a noble Gentleman 'tis, if he would not kee fo good a House. Many a time and often I have din'd wit him, and told him of it; and came again to Supper with him on purpose to have him spend less. And yet he would en brace no Counsel, take no Warning by my coming. Ever Man hath his Fault, and Honesty is his. I have told him t it, but I could never get him from it. Good Friend, he got on, I have noted thee always wife; here's to thee. I have observed thee always for a towardly prompt Spirit, give the thy Due; and one that knows what belongs to Reason; an canst use the Time well, if the Time use thee well. Goo Раг

Parts in thee.—Draw nearer, honest Friend: Thy Lord's a bountiful Gentleman; but thou art wife, and thou knowest well enough (altho' thou com'ft to me) that this is no Time to lend Money, especially upon bare Friendship, without Security. Here's three Solidares for thee; good Boy wink at me, and say thou saw'st me not. - Is't possible, quoth I, the World hould so much differ? Fly, damn'd Baseness, to him that worhips thee! (and threw it back with Scorn.)

Tim. I thank thee for thy honest Zeal.

[Enter 2d Servant.] But here
Comes he I sent to Lucius. What say'st thou?
2d Servant. My Lord, I saw Lord Lucius, and began to deliver your Message to him. May it please your Honour, said L my Lord hath fent—Ha! what hath he fent? fays he; I am so much endeared to that Lord; he's ever sending: how hall I thank him, think'st thou? And what has he sent? He has only fent his present Occasion now, my Lord, says I; requesting your Lordship to supply his instant Use with fifty Talents. I know his Lordship is but merry with me, quoth he; he cannot want fifty times five hundred Talents. Were his Occasion, I reply'd, less pressing, I should not urge it half fo fervently. Dost thou speak seriously then? says he. Why what a wicked Beast was I, to disfurnish myself against such a good Time, when I might have shewn myself honourable? How unlucky it happened that I should make a Purchase but a Day before? I am vaftly forry I am not able to do --- I was fending to use Lord Timon myself, these Gentlemen can witnes; but I would not for the Wealth of Athens, I had done it now. Commend me bountifully to his good Lordship; and I hope his Honour will conceive the fairest of me, because I have really no Power to be kind. And tell him this from me, I count it one of my greatest Afflictions, that I cannot pleasure such an honourable Gentleman.

Tim. And is this all? This the Return for all I've done?— But fee my Messenger from Sempronius. What says he?

2d Servant. Sempronius, my Lord, after much Hesitation, and muttering to himself, cry'd in a surly Tone, Must he needs trouble me in't?—Me above all others?—He might have try'd Lord Lucius, or Lucullus; and now Ventidius is wealthy too, whom he redeem'd from Prison: All these owe their Estates unto him. O, my Lord, says I, they've all been touch'd, and all are found base Metal; for they've all deny'd him. How! deny'd him? says he; Ventidius and Lucullus both deny'd him? And does he fend to me? Hum!-It "shews but little Love or Judgment in him. Must I be his last Refuge?

fuge? He has much difgrac'd me in it. I'm angry. He might have known my Place; I fee no Caufe, but his Occasions might have woo'd me first: for in my Conscience was the first Man that e'er receiv'd a Present from him. Andoes he think so backwardly of me that I'll requite it last No: so it may prove an Argument of Laughter to the rest and I'mongst Lords be thought a Fool. I'd rather than the Worth of thrice the Sum, he'd sent to me first, but for my Mind's Sake: I had such a Courage to have done him good But now return.

And with their faint Reply this Answer join, Who doubts mine Honour, shall not know my Coin!

Tim. Excellent! A goodly Villain! Flav. Why, this is the World's Soul; Of the same Piece is every Flatterer's Spirit. O Timon! see the Monstrousness of Man, When he looks out in an ungrateful Shape! These Trencher-friends do now deny to thee, What charitable Men afford to Beggars.

Tim. And is it thus?—This then is Timen's last—Ye Knot of Mouth-friends! Smoke, and lukewarm Water, Are your true Likeness. O live loath'd, and long, Ye smiling, smooth, detested Parasites!

Athens, adieu! Nothing I'll bear from thee
But Nakedness, thou detestable Town!

Timen will to the Woods, where he shall find,
Th' unkindest Beast more friendly than Mankind.

[Exit in a Rage. If Serv. Hark you, good Steward, where's our Master gone?

Are we undone, cast off, nothing remaining?

Flav. Alack, my Fellows, what should I say to you?

Flow. Alack, my Fellows, what should I say to you!
Let me be recorded by the righteous Gods,
I'm near as poor as you.

I Serv. Such a House broke up!
So noble a Master fall'n! all gone! and not
One Friend to take his Fortune by the Arm,
And go along with him?

2d Serv. As we do turn our Backs
From our Companion, thrown into his Grave;
So his Familiars from his bury'd Fortunes
Slink all away; leave their false Vows with him,
Like empty Purses pick'd: And his poor Self,
A dedicated Beggar to the Air,
With his Disease of all-shun'd Poverty
Walks, like Contempt, alone.

3d Sort

Livery, Yet do our Hearts wear Timon's Livery, for I by our Faces; we are Fellows still, g alike in Sorrow. Leak'd is our Bark, re, poor Mates, stand on the dying Deck, ng the Surges threat. v. Good Fellows all; atest of my Wealth I'll share amongst you. e ever we shall meet, for Timon's Sake, ret be Fellows; shake our Heads, and say, were a Knell unto our Master's Fortunes) ave feen better Days. vast Wretchedness that Grandeur brings! d be so mock'd with Glory as to live 1 a Dream of Friendship? All his Pomp nly painted, like his varnish'd Friends! honest Lord! brought low by his own Heart, ne by Goodness; strange, unusual Mood! Man's worst Crime was doing too much Good.

[Exeunt.

SECT. III.

On Writing LETTERS.

TER Reading and Speaking with Grace and Propriety, the next thing to be confidered, is the Art of ng Letters; as a great Part of the Commerce of humans carry'd on by this Means.

e Art of epistolary Writing, as the late Translator of s Letters has observed, was esteemed by the Romans, in umber of liberal and polite Accomplishments; and we icero mentioning with great Pleasure in some of his is to Atticus, the elegant Specimen he had received from on, of his Genius in this Way *. It seems indeed to formed Part of their Education; and in the Opinion of Locke, it well deserves to have a Share in ours. "The riting of Letters (as that judicious Author observes) enters much into all the Occasions of Life, that no Gentle-L. I.

aman can avoid showing himself in Compositions of this kind. "Occurrences will daily force him to make this Use of his "Pen, which lays open his Breeding, his Sense, and his Ahiet lities, to a severer Examination than any oral Discourse." It is to be wonder'd we have so few Writers in our own Language, who deferve to be pointed out as Models upon fuch an Occasion. After having nam'd Sir William Temple, it would be difficult perhaps to add a Second. The elegant Writer of Cowley's Life, mentions him as excelling in this uncommon Talent; but as that Author declares himself of Opinion, 66 That Letters which pass between familiar Friends, if they es are written as they should be, can scarce ever be fit to see " the Light," the World is deprived of what, no doubt, would have been well worth its Inspection. A late distinguished Genius treats the very Attempt as ridiculous, and professes Bimself "a mortal Enemy to what they call a fine Letter." His Aversion however was not so strong, but he knew how to conquer it when he thought proper, and the Letter which closes his Correspondence with Bishop Atterbury, is, perhaps, the most genteel and manly Address that ever was pen'd to a Friend in Disgrace. The Truth is, a fine Letter does not confift in faying fine things, but in expressing ordinary ones in an uncommon manner. It is the proprie communia dicere, the Art of giving Grace and Elegance to familiar Occurrences, that conflitutes the Merit of this kind of Writing. Mr. Gay's Letter concerning the two Lovers who were struck dead with the same Flash of Lightning, is a Master-piece of the Sort; and the Specimen he has there given of his Talents for this Species of Composition, makes it much to be regretted, we have not more from the same Hand: We might then have equalled, if not excelled, our Neighbours the French in this, as we have in every other Branch of polite Literature, and have found a Name among our own Countrymen to mention with the easy Foiture.

I will here give you, from our best Authors in this Way, fome Specimens of Letters of different kinds, as also some Translations from the Latin and French, by way of Examples; and I shall close with an Original which I have by me, written to a young Gentleman at School, on the Subject of Writing

Letters.

LETTER I.

Sir WILLIAM TEMPLE to Mr. SIDNEY.

Hague, Dec. 13. N. S. 1675.

THO' I did not like the Date of your last Letter, yet I did all the rest very well. I thought Lyons a little too far off for one I wish always in my Reach: But when I temembered, it was a Place of so great Trade, and where you told me yours had been very good in former Times, I was contented, to think you spent your Time to your own Advantage and Satisfaction, tho' not to your Friends, by keeping at such a Distance. I was very well pleased t'other Day with a Visit made me by Captain Fresheim, who was much in your Praises; but I did not like that he shou'd make you kinder to him than to me: Yet I think he deserves it of you, if all be true that he tells; for he pretends to think you, le plus belle Homme, et le plus bonnête Homme, and I know not what more, that never came into my Head, as you know very well. However, I was mighty glad to hear him fay, you had the best Health that cou'd be, and that you looked as if you would keep it so, if you did not grow too kind to the Place and Company you lived in, or they to you. Yet after what you tell me of the French Air and Bourbon Waters, I am much apter to wish myself there, than you these Parts of the World; and tho' I hear News every Day from all Sides, yet I have not heard any so good, since I came upon this Scene, as what you fend me, of the Effects I am like to feel by the Change whenever I come upon that where you are: They will be greater and better than any I can expect by being the busy Man, tho' Je pourrois bien faire Merveilles, with the Company I am joined to, and nobody knows to what Sir Ellis may raise another Ambassador, that has already raised one from the Dead. They begin to talk now of our going to Nimeguen, as if it were nearer than I thought it a Month ago: When we are there, it will be time enough to tell you what I think of our coming away. Hitherto, I can only say, there are so many Splinters in the broken Bone, that the Patient must be very good, as well the Surgeon, if it be a sudden Cure. And though I believe both where you and I are, the Dispositions towards it

are very well, yet I doubt of those who are farther off on both Sides of us. For aught any body knows, this great Dance may end as others use to do, every Man coming to the Place where they begun, or near it: Only, against all Reason and Custom, I doubt the poor Swede, that never led the Dance, is likeliest to pay the Fidlers. I hope you know what passes at Home; at least, 'tis Pity you should not: But if you don't, you shall not for me at this Distance; and since you talk of returning, the Matter is not great. In the mean time, pray let me know your Motions and your Health, since the want of your Cypher keeps me from other things you say you have a mind to tell me. I hear nothing of the Letter you say you have sent me by so good a Hand; so that all I can say to that is, that by whatsoever it comes, any will be welcome that comes from yours; because nobody loves you better than I, nor can be more than I am,

Yours, &c.

LETTER II.

Sir William Temple to the Bishop of Rochester.

Nimeguen, May 21, N. S. 1677.

My Lord,

A M unacquainted with Thanks or Praises, having so little deserved any, that I must judge of them rather by the Report of others, than by any Experience of my own. But if by either, I understand any thing of them, all the Charm or Value they have, arises from the Esteem a Man has of the Person that gives them, or the Belies, in some measure, of his own deserving them. The first of these Circumstances gave so great an Advantage to those I had lately the Honour of receiving from your Lordship in a Letter delivered me by Mr. Dolben, that the Want of the other was but necessary to allay the Vanity they might otherwise have given me. But where a Man can find no Ground to statter himself upon the Thanks he receives, he begins to consider whether they are Praise or Reproach: And so, I amfure, I have Reason to do in the Acknowledgments your.

Lordship is pleased to make me of any Favours to your Son, who has never yet been so kind to me, as to give me the least Occasion of obliging him. I consess, I should have been glad o meet with any, tho' I do not remember so much as ever o have told him so; but if he has guessed it from my Counmance or Conversation, it is a Testimony of his observing such, and judging well; which are Qualities I have thought im guilty of, among those others that allow me to do him o Favour but Justice only in esteeming him. 'Tis his Forme to have been beforehand with me, by giving your Lording an Occasion to take notice of me, and thereby furnishing me with a Pretence of entering into your Service; which ives him a new Title to any I can do him, and your Lording a very just one to employ me upon all Occasions.

Notwithstanding your Lordship's favourable Opinion, I rill assure you, 'tis well for me, that our Work here requires ttle Skill, and that we have no more but Forms to deal rith in this Congress, while the Treaty is truly in the Field, there the Conditions of it are yet to be determined. Pata iam invenient: Which is all I can say of it; nor shall I intease your Lordship's present Trouble, beyond the Prosessions

f my being,

My Lord,

Your Lordship's most Obedient

Humble Servant.

LETTER III.

Mr. Pope to the Bishop of Rochester.

NCE more I write to you as I promised, and this once I fear will be the last! The Curtain will soon be nown between my Friend and me, and nothing lest but to ish you a long good Night. May you enjoy a State of Reste in this Life, not unlike that Sleep of the Soul which me have believed is to succeed it, where we lie utterly fortful of that World from which we are gone, and ripening r that to which we are to go. If you retain any Memory the past, let it only imagine to you what has pleas'd you so for the possession of the past of the present a Dream of an absent Friend, or the past of the present a Dream of an absent Friend, or the past of the present a Dream of an absent Friend, or the past of the past of

bring you back an agreeable Conversation. But upon the whole, I hope you will think less of the Time past than of the future; as the former has been less kind to you than the latter infallibly will be. Do not envy the World your Studies; they will tend to the Benefit of Men against whom you can have no Complaint, I mean of all Posterity: And perhaps at your time of Life, nothing else is worthy your Care. What is every Year of a wise Man's Life but a Censure or Critique on the past? Those whose Date is the shortest, live long enough to laugh at one half of it: The Boy despiles the Infant, the Man the Boy, the Philosopher both, and the Christian all. You may now begin to think your Manhood was too much a Puerility; and you'll never fuffer your Age to be but a fecond Infancy. The Toys and Baubles of your Childhood are hardly now more below you, than those Toys of our riper and of our declining Years, the Drums and Rattles of Ambition, and the Dirt and Bubbles of Avarice. At this Time, when you are cut off from a little Society, and made a Citizen of the World at large, you fhould bend your Talents not to serve a Party, or a few, but all Mankind. Your Genius should mount above that Mist in which its Participation and Neighbourhood with Earth long involved it: To shine abroad and to Heaven, ought to be the Business and the Glory of your present Situation. Remember it was at fuch a time, that the greatest Lights of Antiquity dazled and blazed the most; in their Retreat, in their Exile, or in their Death: But why do I talk of dazling or blazing? it was then that they did Good, that they gave Light, and that they became Guides to Mankind.

Those Aims alone are worthy of Spirits truly great, and fuch I therefore hope will be yours. Resentment indeed may remain, perhaps cannot be quite extinguished, in the noblett Minds; but Revenge never will harbour there: Higher Principles than those of the first, and better Principles than those of the latter, will infallibly influence Men whose Thoughts and whose Hearts are enlarged, and cause them to prefer the Whole to any Part of Mankind, especially to so small a Part as one's single Self.

Believe me, my Lord, I look upon you as a Spirit enter'd into another Life, as one just upon the Edge of Immortality, where the Passions and Assections must be much more exalted, and where you ought to despise all little Views, and all mean Retrospects. Nothing is worth your looking back: and therefore look forward, and make (as you can) the

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World look after you: But take care, that it be not with Pity, but with Esteem and Admiration.

I am with the greatest Sincerity, and Passion for your Fame as well as Happiness,

Yours, &c.

The Bishop of Rochester went into Exile the Month following, and continued in it till his Death, which happen'd at Paris on the sistenth Day of Feb. in the Year 1732.

LETTER IV.

From Mr. GAY to Mr. F

Stanton-Harcourt, Aug. 9, 1718.

THE only News you can expect to have from me here, is News from Heaven, for I am quite out of the World, and there is scarce any thing can reach me except the Noise of Thunder, which undoubtedly you have heard too. We have read in old Authors, of high Towers levell'd by it to the Ground, while the humble Vallies have escap'd: The only thing that is Proof against it is the Laurel, which however I take to be no great Security to the Brains of modern Authors. But to let you see that the contrary to this often happens, I must acquaint you that the highest and most extravagant Heap of Towers in the Universe, which is in this Neighbourhood, stands still undefac'd, while a Cock of Barley in our next Field has been confum'd to Ashes. Would to God that this Heap of Barley had been all that had perished! For unhappily beneath this little Shelter sate two much more constant Lovers than ever were found in Romance under the Shade of a Beech-Tree. 'John Hewit was a well-set Man of about five and twenty; Sarah Drew might be rather called comely than beautiful, and was about the same Age: They had passed thro' the various Labours of the Year together with the greatest Satisfaction; if she milk'd, 'twas his Morning and Evening Care to bring the Cows to her Hand. It was but last Fair that he bought her a Prefent of green Silk for her Straw-Hat; and the Poefy on her Silver Ring was of his chusing. Their Love was the Talk of the whole Neighbourhood; for Scandal never affirm'd that H 4 they

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go

they had any other Views than the lawful Possession of each other in Marriage. It was that very Morning that he had obtain'd the Consent of her Parents, and it was but till the next Week that they were to wait to be happy. Perhaps in the Intervals of their Work they were now talking of their Wedding-Cloaths, and John was fuiting several Sorts of Poppies and Field-flowers to her Complexion, to chuse her a Knot for the Wedding-Day. While they were thus bussed, (it was on the last of July between two and three in the Afternoon) the Clouds grew black, and fuch a Storm of Lightning and Thunder enfu'd, that all the Labourers made the best of their way to what Shelter the Trees and Hedges afforded. Sarab was frightened, and fell down in a Swoon on a Heap of Barley. John, who never separated from her, sat down by her Side, having rak'd together two or three Heaps, the better to secure her from the Storm. Immediately there was heard so loud a Crack, as if Heaven had split asunder; every one was solicitous for the Sasety of his Neighbour, and called to one another throughout the Field. No Answer being return'd to those who called to our Lovers, they step'd to the Place where they lay; they perceiv'd the Barley all in a Smoke, and then 'fpy'd this faithful Pair, John with one Arm about Sarab's Neck, and the other held over her, as to skreen her from the Lightning. They were both struck in this tender Posture. Sarah's lest Evebrow was fing'd, and there appear'd a black Spot on her Breaft; her Lover was all over black, but not the least Signs of Life were found in either. Attended by their melancholy Companions, they were convey'd to the Town, and the next Day interr'd in Stanton-Harcourt Church-yard. My Lord Harcourt, at Mr. Pope's and my Request, has caused a Stone to be plac'd over them, upon Condition that we should furnish the Epitaph, which is as follows.

When Eastern Lovers feed the Funeral Fire, On the same Pile the faithful Pair expire; Here pitying Heaven that Virtue mutual sound, And blasted both, that it might neither wound. Hearts so sincere th' Almighty saw well pleas'd, Sent his own Lightning, and the Victims seiz'd.

But my Lord is apprehensive the Country People will not understand this; and Mr. Pope says he'll make one with something of Scripture in it, and with as little Poetry as Hopkim and Sternhold.

· I am, &c.

LETTER V.

CICERO to ATTICUS.

Perceive from your Letter, and the Copy of my Brother's, which you fent with it, a great Alteration in his Affection and Sentiments with regard to you: which affects me with all that Concern, which my extreme Love for you both cought to give me; and with Wonder at the same time, what could poffibly happen either to exasperate him so highly, or to effect so great a Change in him. I had observed indeed before, what you also mistrusted at your leaving us, that he had conceived some great Disgust, which shocked and filled his Mind with odious Suspicions: which tho' I was often attempting to heal, and especially after the Allotment of his Province, yet I could neither discover that his Resentment was so great, as it appears to be from your Letter, nor find, that what I faid had so great an effect upon him as I wished. I comforted myself however with a Persuasion, that he would contrive to see you at Dyrrachium, or some other Place in those Parts; and in that Case made no doubt, but that all would be set right; not only by your Discourse and talking the Matter over between yourselves, but by the very Sight and mutual Embraces of each other: For I need not tell you who know it as well as myself, what a Fund of Good-Nature and Sweetness of Temper there is in my Brother; and how apt he is both to take and to forgive an Offence. But it is very unlucky that you did not fee him; fince by that Means, what others have artfully inculcated has had more Influence on his Mind, than either his Duty, or his Relation to you, or your old Friendship, which ought to have had the most. Where the Blame of all this lies, it is easier for me to imagine than to write; being afraid, lest, while I am excusing my own People, I should be too severe upon yours: For, as I take the Case to be, if those of his own Family did not make the Wound, they might at least have cured it. When we see one another again, I shall explain to you more easily the Source of the whole Evil, which is spread somewhat wider than it seems to be. ———As to the Letter which be wrote to you from Thessalonica, and what you suppose him to have said of you to your Friends at Rome,

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and on the Road, I cannot conceive what could move him to it. But all my Hopes of making this Matter easy depend on your Humanity. For if you will but reflect, that the best Men are often the most easy, both to be provoked, and to be appealed; and that this Quickness, if I may so call it, or Flexibility of Temper, is generally the Proof of a Good-Nature; and above all, that we ought to bear with one another's Infirmities or Faults, or even Injuries; this troublefome Affair, I hope, will be foon made up again. I beg of you that it may be so. For it ought to be my special Care, from the fingular Affection which I bear to you, to do every thing in my Power, that all, who belong to me, may both love and be beloved by you. There was no occasion for that Part of your Letter, in which ou mention the Opportunities which you have omitted, of Employments both in the City and the Provinces; as well at other times, as in my Consulship. I am perfectly acquainted with the Ingenuity and Greatness of your Mind; and never thought that there was any other Difference between you and me, but in a different Choice and Method of Life. Whilst I was drawn, by a fort of Ambition, to the Desire and Pursuit of Honours; you, by other Maxims, in no wife blameable, to the Enjoyment of an honourable Retreat. But for the genuine Character of Probity, Diligence, and Exactness of Behaviour, I neither prefer myself, nor any Man else to you. And as for Love to me, after my Brother, and my own Family, I give you always the same Place. For I saw, and saw it in a manner the most affecting, both your Solicitude and your Joy, in all the various Turns of my Affairs; and was often pleased, as well with the Applause which you gave me in Success, as the Comfort which you administered in my Fears. And even now, in the time of your Absence, I feel and regret the Loss, not only of your Advice, in which you excel all, but of that familiar Chat with you, in which I used to take so much Delight. Where then shall I tell you that I most want you? in public Affairs? (where it can never be permitted to me to fit idle) or in my Labours at the Bar? which I sustained before through Ambition, but now to preferve my Dignity: Or in my domestic Concerns? where, though I always wanted your Help before, yet fince the Departure of my Brother, I now fland the more in need of it. In thort, neither in my Labours, nor Rest; neither Business, nor Retirement; neither in the Forum, nor at Home; neither in public, nor in private Affairs, can I live any

longer without your friendly Counsel, and endearing Converfation. We have often been reftrained on both Sides, by a kind of Shame, from explaining ourselves on this Article; but I was now forced to it by that Part of your Letter, in which you thought fit to justify yourfelf and your Way of Life to me.—But to return to my Brother: In the pre-Lent State of the ill Humour which he expresses towards you. it happens however conveniently, that your Resolution of declining all Employments Abroad was declared and known long beforehand, both to me and to your other Friends; fo that your not being now together cannot be charged to any Quarrel or Rupture between you, but to your Judgment and Choice of Life. Wherefore both this Breach in your Union will be healed again, and your Friendship with me remain for ever inviolable, as it has hitherto been. - We live here in an infirm, wretched, and tottering Republic: for you have beard, I guess, that our Knights are now almost disjoined again from the Senate. The first Thing which they took amis, was the Decree for calling the Judges to Account who had taken Money in Clodius's Affair. I happened to be absent when it passed; but hearing afterwards that the whole Order refented it, tho' without complaining openly, I chid the Senate, as I thought, with great Effect; and in a Cause, not very modest, spoke forcibly and copiously. They have now another curious Petition, scarce sit to be endured; which yet I not only bore with, but defended. The Company who hired the Afatic Revenues of the Cenfors, complained to the Senate, that, through too great an Eagerness, they had given more for them than they were worth, and begged to be re-leased from the Bargain. I was their chief Advocate, or rather indeed the Second; for CRASSUS was the Man who put them upon making this Request. The Thing is odious and mameful, and a public Confession of their Rashness: but there was great Reason to apprehend, that if they should obtain nothing, they would be wholly alienated from the Senate: so that this Point also was principally managed by me. For, on the First and Second of December, I spoke a great deal on the Dignity of the two Orders, and the Advantages of the Concord between them, and was heard very favourably in a full House. Nothing however is yet done; but the Senate appears well disposed. For METELLUS, the Consul elect, was the only one who spoke against us; tho' that Hero of ours, CATO, was going also to speak, if the Shortness of the Day had not prevented him. Thus,

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Thus, in pursuit of my old Measures, I am supporting, as well as I can, that Concord which my Confulthip had cemented; but fince no great Strefs can now be laid upon it, I have provided myself another Way, and a fure one, I hope, of maintaining my Authority; which I cannot well explain by Letter, yet will give you a short Hint of it. I am in strict Friendship with POMPEY. I know already what you fayand will be upon my Guard, as far as Caution can serve me; and give you a farther Account some other time, of my prefent Conduct in Politics. You are to know, in the mean while, that LUCCEIUS deligns to fue directly for the Confulship; for he will have, it is faid, but two Competitors, CASAR, by Means of ARRIUS, proposes to join with him; and BIBULUS, by Piso's Mediation, thinks of joining with CESAR. Do you laugh at this? Take my Word for it, it is no laughing Matter. What shall I write farther? What? there are many Things; but for another Occasion. If you would have us expect you, pray let me know it. At prefent I shall beg only modestly, what I defire very earnestly, that you would come as foon as possible.

LETTER VI.

MATIUS to CICERO.

YOUR Letter gave me great Pleasure, by letting me see you retain still that favourable Opinion of me, which I had always hoped and wished; and though I had never indeed any Doubt of it, yet for the high Value that I set upon it, I was very solicitous that it should remain always inviolable. I was conscious to myself that I had done nothing which could reasonably give Offence to any honest Man; and did not imagine therefore, that a Person of your great and excellent Accomplishments could be induced to take any without Reason, especially against one, who had always professed, and still continued to profess, a sincere Good-will to you. Since all this then stands just as I wish it, I will now give an Answer to those Accusations, from which you, agreeably to your Charac-

ter, out of your fingular Goodness and Friendship, have so often defended me. I am no Stranger to what has been faid ' of me by certain Persons, since CESAR's Death. They call it a Crime in me, that I am concerned for the Loss of an intimate Friend, and forry that the Man, whom I loved, met with so unhappy a Fate. They say, that our Country ought to be preferred to any Friendship, as if they had already made it evident, that his Death was of Service to the Republic. But I will not deal craftily; I own myself not to be arrived at that Degree of Wisdom; nor did I yet follow CESAR in our late Differtions, but my Friend; whom, though displeased with the Thing, I could not defert: for I never approved the Civil War, or the Cause of it, but took all possible Pains to stifle it in its Birth. Upon the Victory therefore of a familiar Friend, I was not eager to advance, or to enrich myself: an Advantage which others, who had less Interest with him than I, abused to great Excess. Nay, my Circumstances were even hurt by CESAR's Law; to whose Kindness the greatest Part of those, who now rejoice at his Death, owed their very Coninuance in the City. I folicited the Pardon of the Vanquished with the same Zeal as if it had been for my self. Is it possible therefore for me, who laboured to procure the Safety of all, not to be concerned for the Death of him, from whom I used to procure it? especially when the very same Men, who were the Cause of making him odious, were the Authors also of sestroying him. But I shall have Cause, they say, to repent, for daring to condemn their Act. Unheard-of Insolence! that it should be allowed to some to glory in a wicked Action, yet not to others, even to grieve at it without Punishment! But this was always free even to Slaves, to fear, rejoice, and grieve by their own Will, not that of another; which yet these Men, who call themselves the Authors of Liberty, are endcarouring to extort from us by the Force of Terror. But they nay spare their Threats: for no Danger shall terrify me from performing my Duty and the Offices of Humanity; fince it was always my Opinion that an honest Death was never to be woided, often even to be fought. But why are they angry with me, for wishing only that they may repent of their Act? wish that all the Word may regret CESAR's Death. But I sught, fay they, as a Member of Civil Society, to wish the Good and Safety of the Republic. If my past Life and uture Hopes do not already prove, that I wish it, without my aying fo, I will not pretend to evince it by Argument. I beg

own Weight, expanded in this Manner: It appeared sometimes bright, and sometimes dark and spotted, as it was more or less impregnated with Earth and Cinders. This extraordinary Phænomenon excited my Uncle's philosophical Curiofity to take a nearer View of it. He ordered a light Vessel to be got ready, and gave me the Liberty, if I thought proper. to attend him. I rather chose to continue my Studies; for, as it happened, he had given me an Employment of that Kind. As he was coming out of the House he received a Note from Rectina, the Wife of Baffus, who was in the utmost Alarm at the imminent Danger which threatened her; for her Villa being situated at the Foot of Mount Vesuvius, there was no Way to escape but by Sea, she earnestly entreated him therefore to come to her Affistance. He accordingly changed his first Design, and what he began with a philosophical, he pursued with an heroical Turn of Mind. He ordered the Gallies to put to Sea, and went himself on board with an Intention of affilting, not only Restina, but several others; for the Villas stand extremely thick upon that beautiful Coast. When hastening to the Place from whence others fled with the utmost Terror, he steered his direct Course to the Point of Danger, and with so much Calmness and Presence of Mind, as to be able to make and dictate his Observations upon the Motion and Figure of that dreadful Scene. He was now fo near the Mountain, that the Cinders, which grew thicker and hotter the nearer he approached, fell into the Ships, together with Pumice-Stones, and black Pieces of burning Rock: They were likewise in Danger, not only of being aground by the fudden Retreat of the Sea, but alfo from the vast Fragments which rolled down from the Mountain, and obstructed all the Shore. Here he stopped to confider whether he should return back again; to which the Pilot advising him, Fortune, faith he, befriends the Brave; carry me to Pomponianus. Pomponianus was then at Stabie. separated by a Gulph, which the Sea, after several insensible Windings, forms upon that Shore. He had already fent his Baggage on board; for though he was not at that Time in actual Danger, yet being within the View of it, and indeed extremely near, if it should in the least increase, he was determined to put to Sea as foon as the Wind should change. It was favourable however, for carrying my Uncle to Pomponianus, whom he found in the greatest Consternation. He embraced him with Tenderness, encouraging and exhorting him to keep up his Spirits; and the more to diffipate his Fears, he ordered, with an Air of Unconcern, the Baths

: got ready; when, after having bathed, he fate down to er with great Chearfulness, or at least (what is equally ic) with all the Appearance of it. In the mean while Eruption from Mount Vesuvius flamed out from several s with much Violence, which the Darkness of the Night ributed to render still more visible and dreadful. But my e, in order to footh the Apprehensions of his Friend, ashim it was only the burning of the Villages, which the itry People had abandoned to the Flames: After this he d to Reft; and, it is most certain, he was so little disroled as to fall into a deep Sleep; for being pretty fat, breathing hard, those who attended without, actually I him fnore. The Court which led to his Apartment, now almost filled with Stones and Ashes, if he had cond there any time longer, it would have been impossible for to have made his Way out; it was thought proper thereto awaken him. He got up, and went to Pempenianus, the rest of his Company, who were not unconcerned gh to think of going to Bed. They consulted togewhether it would be most prudent to trust to the Houses, h now shook from fide to fide with frequent and vio-Concustions, or fly to the open Fields, where the cal-Stones and Cinders, tho' light indeed, yet fell in large rers, and threatened Destruction. In this Distress they red for the Fields, as the less dangerous Situation of the A Resolution, which while the rest of the Company hurried into by their Fears, my Uncle embraced upon and deliberate Consideration. They went out then, hav-'illows tied upon their Heads with Napkins; and this was whole Defence against the Storm of Stones that fell Tho' it was now Day every where else, with it was darker than the most obscure Night, excepting what Light proceeded from the Fire and Flames. zht proper to go down farther upon the Shore, to observe y might fafely put out to Sea, but they found the Waves un extremely high and boifterous. There my Uncle havlrunk a Draught or two of cold Water threw himself upon a Cloth which was spread for him, when immeby the Flames, and a strong Smell of Sulphur, which was forerunner of them, dispersed the rest of the Company, obliged him to arise. He raised himself up with the Asce of two of his Servants, and instantly fell down dead; ated, as I conjecture, by some gross and noxious Va, having always had weak Lungs, and frequently subjects Difficulty of Breathing. As foon as it was light again,)L. I.

On Writing LETTER &

which was not till the third Day after this melancholy Accident, his Body was found entire, and without any Marks of Violence upon it, exactly in the fame Posture that he fell, and looking more like a Man asseep than dead. During all this time my Mother and I were at Mission. But as this has no Connection with your History, so your Enquiry went no farther than concerning my Uncle's Death; with that therefore I will put an End to my Letter: Suffer me only to add, that I have faithfully related to you what I was either an Eye-witness of myself, or received immediately after the Accident happen'd, and before there was time to vary the Truth. You will chuse out of this Narrative such Circumstances as shall be most suitable to your Purpose; for there is a great Difference between what is proper for a Letter, and an History; between writing to a Friend, and writing to the Public. Farewel.

LETTER VIII.

PLINY to ROMANUS FIRMUS.

S you are my Countryman, my Schoolfellow, and the earrliest Companion of my Youth: as there was the firicteft Friendship between my Mother and Uncle, and your Father; a Happiness which I also enjoy'd as far as the great Inequality of our Ages would admit: can I fail (biaffed as I am towards your Interest by so many strong and weighty Reasons) to contribute all in my Power to the Advancement of your Dignity? The Rank you bear in our Province as a Decurie, is a Proof that you are possessed at least of a hundred thousand Sesterces; but that we may also have the Pleafure of seeing you a Roman Knight, give me leave to present Sum requisite to entitle you to that Dignity. The long Acquaintance we have had, leaves me no room to doubt you will ever be forgetful of this Inflance of my Friendship. need not advise you (what if I did not know your Disposition I should) to enjoy this Honour with the Modesty that becomes one who received it from me; for the Dignity we posses by the good Offices of a Friend, is a kind of facred Tru wherein we have his Judgment, as well as our own Character to maintain, and therefore to be guarded with peculiar Attantion. Farewel.

LETTERS IX.

PLINY to MAXIMUS.

THINK I may claim a Right to ask the same Services of you for my Friends, as I would offer to yours if I were in your Station. Arrianus Maturius is a Person of great Eminence among the Altinates. When I call him fo, it is not with respect to his Fortunes (which however are very considerable;) it is in view to the Purity, the Integrity, the Prudence, and the Gravity of his Manners. His Counsel steers me in my Affairs, and his Judgment directs me in my Studies; for Truth, Honour, and Knowledge, are the faining Qualities which mark his Character. He loves me (and I cannot express his Affection in stronger Terms) with a Tenderness equal to yours. As he is a Stranger to Ambition, he is contented with remaining in the Equestrian Order, when he might easily have advanced himself into a higher Rank. It behoves me however to take care his Merit be rewarded with the Honours it deserves: and I would fain without his Knowledge or Expectation, and prohably too contrary to his Inclination, add to his Dignity. Post I would obtain for him should be something very honourable, and yet attended with no Trouble. I beg when any thing of that Nature offers you would think of him; it will be an Obligation, which both he and I shall ever remember with the greatest Gratitude. For tho' he has no aspiring Wishes to sa-tisfy, he will be as sensible of the Favour as if he had received it in consequence of his own Desires. Farewel.

LETTER X.

PLINY to CATILIUS.

Accept of your Invitation to Supper, but I must make this Agreement before-hand, that you dismiss me soon, and treat me srugally. Let our Entertainment abound only in philosophical Conversation, and even that too with Moderation. There are certain Midnight Parties, which Cate himself could not safely sall in with: the I must confess at the same

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time, that J. Casar when he reproaches him upon that Head, exalts the Character he endeavours to expose; for he describes those Persons who met this reeling Patriot, as blushing when they discovered who he was; and adds, you would have thought that Cato had detested them, and not they Cato. Could he place the Dignity of Cato in a stronger Light than by representing him thus venerable even in his Cups? As for ourselves nevertheless, let Temperance not only speak our Table, but regulate our Hours: for we are not arrived at at so high a Reputation, that our Enemies cannot censure us but to our Honour. Farewel.

LETTER XI.

PLINY to TITIANUS.

HAT are you doing? And what do you purpose to do? As for myself, I pass my Life in the most agreeable, that is, in the most disengaged manner imaginable. I do not find myself therefore, in the Humour to write a long. Letter, tho' I am to read one. I am too much a Man of Pleasure for the former, and just idle enough for the latter for none are more indolent, you know, than the voluptuous, or have more Curiosity than those who have nothing to do. Farewel.

LETTER XII.

To Monsteur DE LIONNE at Rome.

SIR,

I HO' no Man treated me so ill at Rome as yourself; and I must place to your Account some of the most disagreable Hours I passed in all my Travels; yet be assured in never saw any Person in my Life that I had so strong an inclination to revisit, or to whom I would more willingly do the best Services in my Power. It is not very usual to gain a Man's Friendship, at the same time that one ruins his For-

tune. This Success however you have had, and your Advantage was fo much more confiderable than mine in all Respects, that I had not the Power to defend myself against you in either of those Instances, but you won both my Money and my Heart at the same time. If I am so happy as to find a Place in yours, I shall esteem that Acquisition as an Over-balance to all my Losses, and shall look upon myself as greatly a Gainer in the Commerce that passed between us. The your Acquaintance, indeed, hast cost me pretty dear, I do not by any means think I have paid its full Value, and I would willingly part with the fame Sum to meet with a Man in Paris, of as much Merit as yourself. This being the literal Truth, you may be well assured, Sir, that I shall omit nothing in my Power to preserve an Honour I so highly cheem; and that I shall not very easily give up a Friend whom I purchased at so dear a Price. I have accordingly performed every thing you desired in the Affair about which you wrote to me; as I shall obey you with the same Punctuality in every other Instance that you shall command me. For I am with all the Affection that I ought,

Sir, Your, &c.

Voiture.

LETTER XIII.

To the Marchioness de RAMBOUILLET.

MADAM,

SINCE I had the Honour of seeing you, I have suffer'd greater Pains than I am able to express. Still however, I did not forget to execute your Commands; and in passing by Espernay I attended, as your Proxy, the Funeral of the Mareschal Strozzi. His Tomb appear'd to me so magnificent, that in the Condition I was in, and finding myself ready conveyed thither, I had a most violent Inclination to be buried with him. But they made some Difficulty of complying with my Proposal, as they found I had still some remaining Warmth lest in me. I resolved therefore to have my

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Body transported to Nancy; where at length, Madam, it is arrived, but so lean and worn out, that believe me, many a Corpse is interr'd that is much less so. Tho' I have been already here these eight Days, I have not yet been able to recover my Strength, and the longer I repose, the more I find myself fatigued. In truth I perceive such an infinite Difference between that Fortnight which I had the Honour of passing with you, and the same Space of Time which I have spent since, that I am astonish'd how I have been able to support it; and I look upon myself and Monsieur Margours, who teaches School in this Place, as two the most wretched Instances in the World of the Inconstancy of Fortune. I am every Day attacked with Shortness of Breath, and fainting Fits, without being able to meet with the least Drop of Treacle; and I am more indisposed than ever I was in all my Life, in a Place where I cannot be supplied with a proper Medicine. Thus, Madam, I much fear that Newsy will be as fatal to me as it was to the Duke of Bourgagne, and that after having like him, escaped the greatest Dangers, and resisted the most powerful Enemies, I am destin'd to end my Days in this Town. I shall struggle however against that Misfortune as much as possible; for I must confess I am extremely unwilling to leave the World, when I reflect that I shall by that means never have the Honour of seeing you again. I should indeed exceedingly regret, that after having escaped Death by the Hands of the most amiable Woman in the Universe, and missed so many glorious Occasions of expiring at your Feet; I should come here at last to be buried three hundred Leagues from your Presence, and have the Mortification when I rife again, of finding myself once more in Lorrain.

I am, MADAM,

Your, &c.

VOITURE

LETTER XIV.

To Madame De LA CHETARDIE.

MADAM,

TCANNOT taste of your Bounty without expressing at the same time my Gratitude. You have seasted me indeed these four Days in the most delicious Manner, and either there is no Pleasure in the Palate, or your Cheeses afford a Relish of the most exquisite Kind. They are not merely an artful Preparation of Cream; they are the Effects of a certain Quinteffence hitherto unknown, they are I know not what kind of wonderful Production, which with a most delicious Sweetness, preserve at the same time a most pleasing Poig-sancy. Undoubtedly, Madam, you must be the Favourite of Heaven, since you are thus blessed with a Land that fows with Milk and Honey. It was in this Manner, you hardw, that Providence formerly regaled its chosen People; and such were once the Riches of the Golden Age. But asethinks you ought to limit the Luxury of your Table to Rarities of this kind, and not to look out for any other Abundance, in a Place which affords fuch charming Repatts: You ought long fince to have purified your Kitchen, and broke every Instrument of savage Destruction; for would it not be a Shame to live by Cruelty and Murder, in the Midst of fach innocent Provisions? I am fure at least I can never effeem them too much, nor sufficiently thank you for your Present. It is in vain you would persuade me, that it was the Work of one of your Dairy Maids; such coarse Hands could never be concerned in so curious a Production. Most certainly the Nymphs of Vienne were engaged in the Operation; and it is an Original of their making, which you have sent me as a Rarity. If this Thought appears to you poetical, you must remember that the Subject is so too; and might with great Propriety make part of an Eclogue, or enter into some Corner of a Pastoral. But I am by no means an Adept in the Art of Rhyming; befides, it is necessary I should quit the Language of Fable, to affure you in very true and very ferious Profe, I so highly honour your Virtue, that I should always think I owed you much, though I had never I 4

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any Favour at your Hands; and if you were not efactress, I should nevertheless be always,

MADAM,

Your, &cc.

BALZAC,

LETTER XV.

To the Mayor of ANGOULEME.

5 I R,

Perfuade myself that the Request which the Bearer of this will make to you on my Behalf, will not be disagreeable. It concerns indeed the public Interest as well as mine; and I know you are so punctual in the Functions of your Office, that to point out to you a Grievance, is almost the same as to redress it. At the Entrance of the Fauxbourg Lomeau, there is a Way of which one cannot complain in common. Terms. It would draw Imprecations from a Man that never used a stronger Affirmative in all his Life than yea verily; and raife the Indignation even of the mildest Father of the Oratory. It was but the Day before Yesterday, that I had like to have been loft in it, and was in imminent Danger of being cast away in a terrible Slough. Had it indeed been in the open Sea, and in a shattered Vessel, exposed to the Fury of the Winds and Waves, the Accident would have been no-thing extraordinary; but to fuffer such a Missortune upon Land, in a Coach, and during the very Time of your Mayoralty, would have been beyond all Credit or Confolation. Two or three Words of an Order from you, would put this Af-fair into a better Situation, and at the same time oblige a whole County. Let me hope then that you will give Occasion to those without your District to join in Applauses with your own Citizens, and not suffer your Province, which you have embellish'd in so many other Parto be disfigured in this by so vile a Blemish. But after t Interest of the Public has had its doe Weight with you, will? not allow me to have some Share in your Consideration,

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grateful for the good Offices he receives? There are who will lay even more, and affure you that you have an Opportunity of extending your Reputation beyond the Bounds of your Province, and of making the Remembrance of your Mayoralty last longer than its annual Period. I shall learn by the eturn of the Bearer, if you think my Friends speak the Truth, and whether you have so high an Opinion of the Acknowledgment I shall make to you, as to comply with the Requst I have alwayd tender'd: To which I have only to add the Assurance of my being, with great Sincerity,

ŞIR,

Your, &c.

BALZAC.

LETTER XVI.

To a young Gentleman at School,

DEAR MASTER F.

AM glad to hear you are well fixt in your new School. I have now before me the three last Letters which you fent your Father, and, at his Desire, am going to give you sew Directions concerning Letter-writing, in hopes they may be of some small Service toward improving your Talent that

Wav.

When you sit down to write, call off your Thoughts from every other Thing but the Subject you intend to handle: Confider it with Attention, place it in every Point of View, and examine it on every Side before you begin. By this means you will lay a Plan of it in your Mind, which will rise like a well-contrived Building, beautiful, uniform, and regular: Whereas, if you neglect to form to yourself some Method of going through the Whole, and leave it to be conducted by giddy Accident, your Thoughts upon any Subject can never appear otherways than as a mere heap of Consustant Consider you are now to form a Stile, or, in other Words, to learn the Way of expressing what you think; and your doing

, J.

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ing it well or ill for your whole Life, will depend, in a grantefure, upon the Manner you fall into at the Beginniz It is of great Confequence therefore, to be attentive and digent at first; and an expressive, genteel, and easy Manner Writing, is so useful, so engaging a Quality, that whatev Pains it costs, it amply will repay. Nor is the Task so discust as you at first may think, a little Practice and Attention will enable you to lay down your Thoughts in Order; and from time to time will instruct and give you Rules for so doin But, on your Part, I shall expect Observance and Application

without which nothing can be done.

As to Subjects, you are allowed in this Way the utme Whatsoever has been done, or thought, or see or beard; your Observations on what you know, your E quiries about what you do not know; the Time, the Place the Weather, every thing around stands ready for your Pu pose; and the more Variety your intermix the better. S Discourses require a Dignity or Formality of Stile suitable the Subject; whereas Letter-writing rejects all Pomp Words, and is most agreeable, when most familiar. B tho' lofty Phrases are here improper, the Stile must not ther fore fink into Meanness: And to prevent its doing so, an ea Complaisance, an open Sincerity, and unaffected Goo Nature, should appear in every Place. A Letter should we an honest, chearful Countenance, like one who truly esteem and is glad to see his Friend; and not look like a Fop admi ing his own Dress, and seemingly pleased with nothing b himfelf.

Express your Meaning as briefly as possible; long Perio may please the Ear, but they perplex the Understanding. I your Letters abound with Thoughts more than Words. short Stile, and plain, strikes the Mind, and fixes an it pression; a tedious one is seldom clearly understood, and new long remember'd. But there is still something requisite by yond all this, towards the writing a polite and agreeable Leter, such as a Gentleman ought to be distinguished by; at that is, an Air of Good-breeding and Humanity, which oug constantly to appear in every Expression, and give a Beauty the Whole. By this, I would not be supposed to mean, ove strain'd or affected Compliments, or any thing that way tening; but an easy, genteel, and obliging manner of Addre a Choice of Words which bear the most civil Meaning, and generous and good-natur'd Complaisance.

What I have faid of the Stile of your Letters, is intend as a Direction for your Conversation also, of which you

Care is necessary, as well as of your Writing. As the Profession allotted for you will require you to speak in Public, you should be more than ordinary solicitous how to express yourfelf, upon all Occasions, in a clear and proper Manner, and to acquire an Habit of ranging your Thoughts readily, in apt and handsome Terms; and not blunder out your Meaning, or be ashamed to speak it for want of Words. Common Conversation is not of so little Consequence as you may imagine; and if you now accustom yourself to talk at random, you will said it hereaster not easy to do otherwise.

I wish you good Success in all your Studies, and am certain your Capacity is equal to all your Father's Hopes. Consider, the Advantage will be all your own; and your Friends can have no other Share of it, but the Satisfaction of seeing you a

berned and a virtuous Man.

I am

Sin,

your affectionate Friend,

and humble Servant,

R.

ARITH

ARITHMETI

RITHMETIC is the Art of Numbering; or, th of the Mathematics which confiders the Powers an perties of Numbers, and teaches how to compute or ca truly, and with Expedition and Ease. Arithmetic of chiefly in the four great Rules, or Operations, of Ac Substraction, Multiplication and Division. It is true, 1 facilitating and expediting of Calculations, Mercantile, nomical, &c. divers other useful Rules have been cont as, the Rules of Proportion, of Allegation, of false Pe Extraction of Square and Cube Roots, Progression, F. ship, Interest, Barter, Rebate, Reduction, Tare and &c. But these are only various Applications of the fir Rules; and, as they are the Foundation of all Compu an Introduction to them feems not to be improper in this which we shall therefore give in the most short, plain, . miliar manner.

NUMERATION

Is the Art of estimating or pronouncing any Number, ries of Numbers.

The Characters whereby Numbers are ordinarily exare the ten following ones, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8. It being the Law of the common Numeration, that who are arrived at ten, you begin again, and repeat as before

expressing the Number of Tens.

That the ten numerical Notes may express not only but also Tens or Decads, Hundreds or Centuries, The &c. they have a local Value given them; so, as that w ther alone, or when placed in the Right-hand Place, t note Units; in the second Place, Tens; in the third dreds; in the fourth, Thousands.

Now, to express any written Number, or assign the Value to each Character, divide the proposed Num Comma's into Classes, allowing three Characters in each

beginning at the Right-hand. Over the Right-hand Figure of the third Class, add a small Mark, or transverse Line; over the Right-hand Figure of the fisth Class, add two Marks, or transverse Lines; over that of the seventh, three, &c. The Number to the Lest of the first Comma, express by thousands; that which has over it the first transverse Line, express by millions; that with two, by billions; that with three, by trillions, &c. Lastly, the Lest-hand Character of each Class, express by hundreds; the middle one by tens; and the Right-hand one, by units. Thus will the Numeration be effected.

E. gr. The following Numbers, 2",125,473",613,578', 432,597, is thus expressed or read: Two trillions, one hundred twenty five millions of billions, four hundred seventy three billions, fix hundred thirteen thousands of millions, and five bundred seventy eight millions, four hundred and thirty two

thousand, five hundred and ninety seven.

And thus it appears, that by Numeration we learn the different Value of Figures, by their different Places; and, of confequence, to read or write any Sum, or Number.

The TABLE.

9	Units.	I
ရှင် '	Tens.	12
9၀၀	Hundreds.	123
9 500	Thousands.	1234
9င်ဝဝ၁	X Thousands.	12345
900000	C Thousands.	123456
9000000	Millions.	1234567
90000000	X Millions.	12345678
90000000	C Millions.	123456789

From this Table may be observed:

- 1. The Names of the several Places, viz. Units, Tens, Hundreds, &c. which proceed (increasing by a tensold Proportion) from the Right-hand to the Left.
- 2. That every Figure hath two Values; one in itself; the other from the Place it stands in. Thus, on the Lest-side of the Table, the Figure 9 in the upper Line, standing in the Unit's place, is only nine; but in the second Line, being removed into the place of Tens, becomes ninety; and in the third Line is nine hundred, &c.

3, That

3. That the a Cypher is nothing in itself, yet it gives Value to other Figures, by removing them into higher Places.

All which being very obvious, I proceed to

ADDITION,

W HICH is the first of the four fundamental Rules, or Operations in Arisbmetic. Addition confiss in finding the Amount of several Numbers, or Quantities, severally added one to another.—Or, Addition is the Invention of a Number, from two or more homogeneous ones given, which is equal to the given Numbers taken jointly together.

The Numbers, thus found, is called the Sum, or Aggregate

of the Numbers given.

The Addition of simple Numbers is easy. Thus it is readily perceived that 7 and 9 make 16; and 11 and 15 make 26.

In longer, or compounded Numbers, the Business is performed by writing the given Numbers in a Row downwards; homogeneous under homogeneous, i. e. Units under Units, Tens under Tens, &c. and singly collecting the Sums of the respective Columns.

To do this we begin at the Bottom of the outmost Row or Column to the Right; and if the Amount of this Column do not exceed 9, we write it down at the Foot of the same Column: If it do exceed 9, the Excess is only to be wrote down, and the rest reserved to be carried to the next Row, and added thereto; as being of the same Kind or Denomination

Suppose, e. gr. the Numbers 1357 and 172, were given to be added; write either of them, v. gr. 172, under the other, 1357; so, as the Units of the one, viz. 2, stand under the Units of the other, viz. 7; and the other 1357 Numbers of the one, under the correspondent ones of 172 the other, viz. the place of Tens under Tens, as 7 under 5; and that of Hundreds, viz. 1, under the place 1529 of Hundreds of the other, 3.—Then, beginning, szy, 2 and 7 make 9; which write underneath; also 7 and 5 make 12; the last of which two Numbers, viz. 2, is to be written, and the other 1 reserved in your Mind to be added to the next Row, 1 and 3: Then say, 1 and 1 make 2, which added to 3 make 5; this write underneath, and there will remain only 1, the first Figure of the upper Row of Numbers, bers,

ben, which also must be writ underneath; and thus you have

the whole Sum, viz. 1529.

So, to add the Numbers 87899-13403-885-1920 into one Sum, write them one under another, so as all the Units make one Column, the Tens another, the Hundreds a third, and the place of Thousands a fourth, and so on—Then say, 5 and 3 make 8; 8 and 9 make 17; write 7 underneath, and the I add to the next Rank; faying, I and 8 make 9, gand 2 make 11, 11 and 9 make 20; and having writ the o underneath, fay again, 2 and 8 make 10, 10 and 9 87899 make 19, 19 and 4 make 23, 23 and 8 make 31; 13403 then referving 3, write down I as before, and fay 1920 Thin, 3 and 1 make 4, 4 and 3 make 7, 7 and 7 make 14; wherefore write 4 underneath: And lastly, **88**< by I and I make 2, 2 and 8 make 10, which in the 104107

hat Place write down, and you will have the Sum of them all.

ADDITION of Numbers of different Denominations, for instance, of Pounds, Shillings and Pence, is performed by adding or fumming up each Denomination by itself, always beginning with the lowest; and if after the Addition there be cough to make one of the next higher Denomination, for inhance, Pence enough to make one or more Shillings; they must be added to the Figures of that Denomination, that is, to the Shillings; only referving the odd remaining Pence to be put down in the Place of Pence.—And the same Rule is to be observed in Shillings with regard to Pounds.

For an instance, 5 Pence and 9 Pence make 14 Pence; now in 14 there is one 12, or a Shilling, and two remaining Pence; the Pence, set down; and reserve I L Shilling to be added to the next Column, 120 which confifts of Shillings. Then I and 8 65 12 5 and 2 and 5 make 16: the 6 put down, and σ carry the 1 to the Column of Tens; 1 and 1

and I make three Tens of Shillings, or 30 Shil-195 lings; in 30 Shillings there is once twenty Shillings, or a Pound, and 10 over: Write one in the Column

of Tens of Shillings, and carry I to the Column of Pounds: and continue the Addition of Pounds, according to the former Rules.

So, half of an even Sum will be carried to the Pounds; and the odd one (where it so happens) set under the Tens of the Shillings.

To facilitate the casting up of Money, it will be necessary to

learn the following Table.

RITH'METIC. Pence. įs Examples in Whole Numbers, and Money. Yards. c,g co } Tota SUBSTRACTION, R SURTRACTION, in Arithmetic, whereby in Arithmetic; whereby areaser to learn the precise D. rather operation, in Annumeric; whereby, in Annumeric; whereby, in Annumeric; whereby, in Annumeric; whereby, is Number from a greater, to learn the precise D. Subfiration is the finding a Subfiration is the finding a which ones given: which her from two homogenous ones given: ber from Numbers, is equal to the other.

The Doctrine of Subfraction is reducible for the Doctrine of Subfraction is reducible.

Number infthy, Substraction, given; which or more infthy, substraction is reducible to the given Numbers, is equal to the other.

The Doctrine of Substraction is reducible to the given Number at less Number from fuch in fuch the less Number under the greater, in fuch the less Number answer to homogenous figures answer to homogenous figures answer to directed the less Number to Numbers draw a Line.

You Under the two Numbers Tens from Tens from Units, the Right-hand with the feveral Remained the feveral from a less; borrow the Lest places, from a less; borrow the less thank this is equivalent to to be substracted from a equivalent to the further place, the Substraction is to be made to be in the react Lest Number, the Substraction the next Lest Number chance to be in the react.

Cycher chance to be in the react.

By these Rules, any Number many from the next for example;

If it be required, from To fubstract

9809403459 **4**74386**52**ft3

The Remainder will be found 5056538196

For, beginning with the Right-hand Figure, and taking 3 from 9, there remains 6 Units, to be wrote underneath the Line: going then to the next Place, 6 I find, cannot be taken from 5; wherefore, from the Place of hundreds 4, I borrow 1, which is equivalent to 10, in the Place of tens; and from the Sum of this 10 and 5, viz. 15, fubstracting 6, I find nine tens remaining, to be put down under the Line. Proceeding to the Place of hundreds, 2 with the 1 borrowed at the last, make 3, which suffracted from 4, leave 1. Again, 5 in the Place of thoufunds, cannot be fubstracted from 3; for which Reason, taking I from 4, in the Place of hundreds of thousands, into the empty Place of tens of thousands, the Cypher is converted into 10 tens of thousands, whence one 10 being berrowed, and added to the 3, and from the Sum 13 thousand, 5 thousand being fulfracted, we shall have 8 thousand to enter under the Line: Then fubstracting 6 tens of thousands from 9, there remain 3. Coming now to take 8 from 4; from the 8 further on the Left, I borrow 1, by means whereof, the two Cyphers will be turned each into q. And after the like manner is the rest of the Subfraction eafily performed.

If heterogeneous Numbers be to be substracted from each other; the Units borrowed are not to be equal to ten; but to so many as there go of Units of the less kind, to consti-

tute an Unit of the greater: For example;

l. s. d. 45 16 6 27 19 9

17 16 9

For fince 9 Pence cannot be substracted from 6 Pence; of the 16 Shillings, one is converted into 12 Pence; by which means, for 6 we have 18 Pence; whence 9 being substracted, there remain 9. In like manner, as 19 Shillings cannot be substracted from the remaining 15; one of he 45 Pounds is converted into 20 Shillings, from which, dded to the 15, 19 being substracted, the Remainder is 16 hillings. Lastly, 27 Pounds substracted from 44 Pounds, there emain 17.

If a greater Number be required to be substracted from a less, is evident that the thing is impossible.—The less Number, perfore, in that Case, is to be substracted from the greater; Vol. I.

and the Defect to be noted by the negative Character, If I am required to pay 8 Pounds, and am only Master of 3; when the 3 are paid, there will still remain 5 behind; which are to be noted,—5.

Substraction is proved, by adding the Remainder to the Subtrahend, or Number to be substracted: for if the Sum be equal to the Number whence the other is to be substracted, the Sub-

fraction is justly performed.—For example;

9800403459 fub:rahend 4743865263		s. 11		fabtrahend
5056538196 Remainder	134	14	C [‡]	
9800403459	156	11	314	

Examples of Integers and Money. Yards. ď. Lent 812 7146325 13 **e**81 Paid 190 1483972 19 101 5662353 Rem. 621 Rem. 13 c 9≟ Proof Proof 812 7146325 c81 13

Borrowed (08‡ 429 11 at several 17 10 Times. 356 17 061 Borrowed in all 999 07 00¥ Paid ı 8 519 901 Rem. 479 08 02

07

MULTIPLICATION

S the Act, or Art of multiplying one Number by another, find the Product.

Proof 999

Multiplication, which is the third Rule in Arithmetic, confifts in finding some third Number, out of two others gives; wherein, one of the given Numbers is contained as often Unity is contained in the other.

Or, Multiplication is the finding what will be the Sum any Number added to itself, or repeated, as often as there as Units in another.—So Multiplication of Numbers is a compete

dious Kind of Addition.

THE REPORT OF THE PARTY OF THE

tiplied, or the Multiplicand, is placed over that whereby it be multiplied; and the Factum or Product under both. in Example or two will make the Process of Multiplication

. Suppose I would know the Sum 269 multipled by 8, or mes 26g.

Multiplicator ——

Factum, or Product he Factors being thus disposed, and a Line drawn underh, (as in the Example) I begin with the Multiplicator : 8 times 9 make 72, set down 2, and carry 7 tens, as in ition; then 8 times 6 make 48, and 7 I carried, 55; fet down nd carry 5; lastly, 8 times 2 make 16, and with 5 I car-21, which I put down: so as coming to number the se-Figures placed in order, 2, 1, 5, 2, I find the Product to

ow supposing the Factors to express Things of different ies, viz, the Multiplicand Men, or Yards, and the Mulr Pounds; the Product will be of the same Species with the tiplicator. Thus the Product of 269 Men or Yards muld by 8 Pounds or Pence, is 2152 Pounds or Pence; so y of these going to the 260 at the Rate of 8 a-piece. Hence 2st Use of Multiplication in Commerce, &c.

the Multiplicator consist of more than one Figure, the e Multiplicand is to be added to itself, first, as often as the t-hand Figure of the Multiplicator shews, then as often next Figure of the Multiplicator thews, and so on.— 1 421 and 23 is equal to 421 and 3 and also 421 and 20. Product arising from each Figure of the Multiplicator, plied into the whole Multiplicand, is to be placed by iti such a Manner, that the first or Right-hand Figure thereof hand under that Figure of the Multiplicator from which id Product arises. For instance;

Multiplicand -Multiplicator -Particular Product of 421 and 3 -

Particular Product of 421 and 20 -The total Product -

117

This Disposition of the Right-hand Figure of each Product follows from the first general Rule; the Right-hand Figure each Product being always of the same Denomination with t Figure of the Multiplicator from which it arises.

Thus in the Example, the Figure 2 in the Product 842, is the Denomination of tens, as well as the Figure 2 in the M tiplicator. For 1 and 20 (that is the 2 of 23) is equal to 20,

2 put in the place of tens, or second place.

Hence if either of the Factors have one or more Cyphers the Right-hand, the *Multiplication* may be formed without garding the Cyphers, till the Product of the other Figures found: To which they are to be then affixed on the right. If the Multiplicator have Cyphers intermixed, they need not be regarded at all.—Instances of each follow.

12	358 6 000	10	24 00 3 0	500 6
120	2148 000	100	72 000	48078 4 9 065

40113078

Thus much for an Idea of Multiplication, where the M tiplicator confifts wholly of Integers; in the Praxis when it is supposed, the Learner is apprized of the Product of of the nine Digits multiplied by one another, easily learnt fithe Table annexed.

There are also some Abbreviations of this Art.—Thus multiply a Number by 5, you need only add a Cypher to it, then halve it.—To multiply by 15, do the same, then add b

together. The Sum is the Product.

Where the Multiplicator is not composed wholly of It gers; as it frequently happens in Business, where Pounds accompanied with Shillings and Pence; Yards with Feet: Inches: the Method of Procedure, if you multiply by a six Digit, is the same in simple Numbers, only carrying some Denomination to another, as the Nature of each Spe requires. E. gr. to multiply 1231. 14s. 9d. 3q. by say 5 times 3 Farthings is 15 Farthings, that is, 3d. write down the 3q. and proceed, saying, 5 times 9 Pence, and 3 Pence added from the Farthings is 48 Pewhich is 4s. set down a Cypher, as there are no Peremaining, and proceed, saying, 5 times 4s. is 20s. 4s. is 24s. set down 4s. and say, 5 times 10s. is and 10s. is 60s. which make 3 Pounds, to be carried to Place of Pounds. Therefore continue thus; 5 times 3 is

and 3 is 18; fet down 8 and carry 1 or one 10, faying, 5 times 2 is 10 and 1 is 11; fet down 1 and carry one, as before, faying, 5 times 1 is 5 and 1 is 6. Thus it will appear that:

produces — 618 If you multiply by two or more Digits, the Methods of Procedure are as follow. —— Suppose I have bought 37 Ells of Cloth at 13 l. 16s. 6d. per Ell, and would know the Amount of the whole.—I first multiply 37 Ells by the 131. in the common Method of Multiplication by Integers, leaving the two Products without adding them up; then multiply the same 37 Ells by 16s. leaving, in like manner, the two Products without adding them. Lastly, I multiply the same 37 by the 6d. the Product whereof is 222 d. which divided by 12, (fee Division) gives 18s. 6d. and this added to the Products of the 16s. the Sum will be 610s. 6d. the Amount of 37 Eils at 16s. the Ell. Lastly, the 610s. 6d. are reduced into Pounds by dividing them by 20: upon adding the whole, the Amount of 37 Ells at 131. 16s. 6d. will be found as in the following.

37 Ells 37 Ells 37 Ells. At 13 Pounds. At 16 Shillings. At 6 Pence. III . 222 222 37 18 6 37 30 10 6

Product 511 10 6 610 6

Or thus: Suppose the same Question: reduce the 131. 16s. into Shillings, the Amount will be 276s reduce 276s into Pence, adding 6, the Amount will be 3318 d. Multiply the 37 Ells by 3318, the Amount will be 122766 d. which divided by 12; and the Quotient 10230s. 6d. reduced into Pounds by cutting off the last Figure on the right, and taking half of those on the left, yields 5111. 105 6d. the Price of the 37 Ells, as before.

Though by these two Methods any Multiplications of this Kind may be effected, yet the Operations being long, we shall add a third much shorter—Suppose the same Question: Multiply the Price by the Factors of the Multiplicator, if resolvable into Factors: if not, by those that come nearest it; adding the Price for the odd one, or multiplying it by what the Factors want of the Mukiplier. So, the Work will fland that 37 Ells at 16s. 6d.: 6 times 6 is 36 and 1 is 37:

Therefore — 6 82 19 0 497 14 0 13 16 6 511 10 6

The Price of the 37 Ells.

But the most commodious is the fourth Method, which is performed by aliquot and aliquant Parts—where you are to observe by the way, that aliquat Parts of any thing are those contained several times therein, and which divide without any Remainder; and that aliquant Parts are other Parts of the same thing composed of several aliquot Parts.

To MULTIPLY by aliquet Parts, is in Effect only to divide a Number by 3, 4, 5, &c. which is done by taking a 3d, 4th, 5th, &c. from the Number to be multiplied. Example.

To multiply, v. g. by 6s. 8d. Suppose I have 347 Ells

of Ribbon at 6s. 8d. per Ell.

Multiplicator — 347 Ells.

Multiplicator — 65. 8 d.

Product — 1151. 135. 4d.

The Question being stated, take the Multiplicator, which according to the Table of aliquot Parts is the third; and say, the third of three is 1, set down 1; the third of 4 is 1, set down 1, remains 1, that is, 1 ten, which added to 7, makes 17; then the third of 17 is 5; remain 2 Units, i. e. two thirds, or 13s. 4d. which place after the Pounds. Upon numbering the Figures 1, 1, and 5 Integers, and 13s. 4d. the aliquot Part remaining, I find the Sum 115l. 13s. 4d.

For MULTIPLICATION by aliquant Parts: Suppose I would multiply by the aliquant Part 195. I first take for 105. half the Multiplicand; then for 5, which is the fourth, and lastly, for 4, which is the 5th. The Products of the three aliquot Parts that compose the aliquant Part, being added together, the Sum will be the total Product of the Multiplication, as in the following Example; which may serve as a Model for Multiplication by

any aliquant Part that may occur.

Multiplicand ———— Multiplier ————	356 Ells. 195.
	1781. for 10s. 891. for 5s. 711. 4s. for 4s.
Product — — —	3381. 45.

For the Proof of MULTIPLICATION.—The Operation is right when the Product divided by the Multiplier quotes the Multiplicand; or divided by the Multiplicand quotes the Multiplier.—A readierWay, though not absolutely to be depended on (see Addition) is thus: Add up the Figures of the Factors, casting out the nines; and setting down the Remainders of each. These multiplied together, out of the Factum, cast away the mines, and fet down the Remainder. If this Remainder agree with the Remainder of the Factum of the Sum, after the nines are cast out; the Work is right.

Cross MULTIPLICATION, or otherwise called duodecimal drithmetic, in an expeditious Method of multiplying Things of several Species, or Denominations, by others likewise of different Species, &c. E. gr. Shillings and Pence by Shillings and Pence; Feet and Inches by Feet and Inches; much used in

measuring, &c.—The Method is thus.

Suppose 5 Feet 3 Inches to be multiplied by 2 Feet 4 Inches; say, 2 times 5 Feet is 10 Feet, and 2 times 3 in 6 Inches: Again, 4 times 5 is 20 Inches, or 1 Foot 8 Inches; and 4 times 3 is 12 Parts, or one Inch; the whole Sum makes 12 Feet 3 Inches.—In the fame Manner you may manage Shillings and Pence

		ou		1	
-	<i>පැ</i> .	i	12	3	_
١ ١	BLE.			•	
	. (7	49		
	7 times }	8	56		
		9	63		
	8 times {	7 8 9 8 9	49 56 63 64		
	l	_ 9	72		
	9 times	9	72 81		
		2	24		
	İ		24 36 48 60 72 84 96		
	į	3 4 5 6	48		
		5	60		
	. !	6	72		
	12 times	7 8	84		
	1		96		
	ļ	9			
	i	10	180		
		11	132		
	,	. 12	144		
l					

F.

3

4

6

8

DIVI-

5

2

10

I

	The	TABLE.	
3 times < 6	9 12 15	7 times {	7 8 9
3 times < 6	18 21 24	8 times {	8 9
i9	27	9 times	9
$ \begin{array}{c} 4 \text{ times} \begin{cases} 6 \\ 5 \\ 6 \\ 7 \\ 8 \\ 9 \end{array} $	16 20 24 28 32 36	12 times	3 4 5 6 7 8
$ \begin{array}{c} 5 \text{ times} \\ 5 \\ 7 \\ 8 \end{array} $	30 35 40		9 1 10 1 11 1
6 times { 7 8 9	36	, K	

tors want of the Multiplier. So, the Work will fland thus: 37 Ells at 16s. 6d.: 6 times 6 is 36 and 1 is 37:

Therefore 0 10 497 14. 0 13 16 511 01

The Price of the 37 Ells.

But the most commodious is the fourth Method, which is performed by aliquot and aliquant Parts-where you are to ob. ferve by the way, that aliquot Parts of any thing are those condined feveral times therein, and which divide without any Remainder; and that aliquant Parts are other Parts of the same thing composed of several aliquot Parts.

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5th, &c. from the Number to be multiplied. Example.

To multiply, v. g. by 6s. 8d. Suppose 1 have 347 Ells of Ribbon at 6s. 8d. per Ell.

Multiplicand Multiplicator 6s. 8 d. Product 1151. 135. 44.

The Question being stated, take the Multiplicator, which according to the Table of aliquot Parts is the third; and fay, the third of three is 1, fet down 1; the third of 4 is 1, fet down 1, remains 1, that is, 1 ten, which added to 7, makes 17; then the third of 17 is 5; remain 2 Units, i. e. two thirds, or 13s. 4d. which place after the Pounds. Upon numbering the Figures 1, 1, and 5 Integers, and 13s. 4d. the aliquot Part remaining, I find the Sum 1151. 13s. 4d.

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any aliquant Part that may occur.

Multiplica Multiplier			356 Ells. 195.
			178% for 10s. 89% for 5s. 71% 4s. for 4s.
Product	 ••••	-	3381. 45.

For the Proof of MULTIPLICATION.—The Operation is right when the Product divided by the Multiplier quotes the Multiplicand; or divided by the Multiplicand quotes the Multiplier.—A readierWay, though not absolutely to be depended on (see Addition) is thus: Add up the Figures of the Factors, casting out the nines; and setting down the Remainders of each. These multiplied together, out of the Factum, cast away the nines, and set down the Remainder. If this Remainder agree with the Remainder of the Factum of the Sum, after the nines are cast out; the Work is right.

Cross Multiplication, or otherwise called duodecimal Arithmetic, in an expeditious Method of multiplying Things of several Species, or Denominations, by others likewise of different Species, &c. E. gr. Shillings and Pence by Shillings and Pence; Feet and Inches by Feet and Inches; much used in

measuring, &c.—The Method is thus.

Suppose 5 Feet 3 Inches to be multiplied by 2 F. I. Feet 4 Inches; say, 2 times 5 Feet is 10 Feet, 5 3 and 2 times 3 in 6 Inches: Again, 4 times 5 is 4 2 20 Inches, or 1 Foot 8 Inches; and 4 times 3 is 6 10 12 Parts, or one Inch; the whole Sum makes 8 12 Feet 3 Inches.—In the same Manner you I may manage Shillings and Pence, &c. 12

5			1%	3
•	The TA	BLE.		•
[3 4 5 3 times < 6	9 12 15 18	7 times {	7 49 8 56 9 63	
3 times < 6	18 21 24	8 times {	8 6 ₄ 9 7 ²	
i9	27	9 times	9 81	
4 times \begin{cases} \frac{4}{5} & \\ 6 & \\ 7 & \\ 9 & \\ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \	16 20 24 28 32 36 25	12 times	2 24 3 36 4 48 5 60 6 72 7 84 8 96 9 108 10 180	
5 times 7 8 9	40 45	Į	12 144	
6 times \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \	35 40 45 36 42 48 54	`		
,	. 10	K 4		DIVI-

DIVISION

S the last of the four great Rules, being that whereby find how often a less Quantity is contained in a gre-

and the Overplus.

Division, in Reality, is only a compendious Method of straction; its Effect being to take a less Number from other greater, as often as possible; that is, as oft as contained therein. There are, therefore, three Numbers of cerned in Division: 1. That given to be divided, called Dividend. 2. That whereby the Dividend is to be divicalled the Divisor. 3. That which expresses how often Divisor is contained in the Dividend; or the Number result from the Division of the Dividend by the Divisor, called Quatient.

There are diverse ways of performing Division, one cathe English, another the Flemish, another the Italian, another Spanish, another the German, and another the Indian vall equally just, as finding the Quotient with the same (tainty, and only different in the manner of arranging, and posing the Numbers. The Italian way is most generally us

Division is performed by seeking how often the Division contained in the Dividend; and when the latter consists of greater Number of Figures than the former, the Divident must be taken into parts, beginning from the left, and proceeding to the right, and seeking how often the Divisor is for

in each of those Parts.

For Example, it is required to divide 6759 by 3: I first how oft 3 is contained in 6, viz. twice; then how oft 7, which is likewise twice; with one remaining. This therefore, is joined to the next Figure 5, which makes and I seek how oft 3 in 15; and lastly, how oft 3 in 9. the Numbers expressing how oft 3 is contained in each those Parts, I write down according to the Order of the Prof the Dividend, that is, from lest to right, and separate th from the Dividend itself, by a Line, thus:

Divisor. Dividend. Quotient.

3) 6759 (2253
It appears, therefore, that 3 is contained 2253 times 6759; or that 6759 being divided into 3, each Part will 2253. If there be any Remainder, that is, if the Divifor peated a certain Number of times is not equal to the Didend, what remains is wrote over the Divifor Fraction-wi Thus, if inflead of 6759 the Dividend were only 6758, t Quotient will be the same as in the former Case, except

the last Figure 8; for 3 being only contained twice in 8, the Number in the Quotient will be 2; and as twice three is only 6, there remains 2 of the Dividend; which I write after the Quotient, with the Divisor underneath it, and a Line to separate the two; thus,

3) 6758 (2252-

An Example in Division, work'd two ways.

upic in Division,	WOLK G LWG WAYS.
32)42645(1332	32)42645(1332
32	-
-	106
106	-
96	104
104	85
96	
	21
85 64	
64	
21	

ABBREVIATIONS.

If. If there are any Cyphers on the Right-hand of your Divisor, you may cut off so many Cyphers, or Figures, on the Right-hand of your Dividend; but remember to bring them down (if Figures) to the Remainder.

E X A M P L E. 21|00)8645|29(411 84

2dly. By the foregoing Rule, you may observe, that to divide by 10, 100, 1000, &c. is only to cut so many Figures from the Right-hand of the Dividend, as there are Cyphers in the Divisor.

E X A M P L E.
1 | 000 | 43682 | 735(
So the Quetient is 43682, the Remainder 735.

3dly, When your Divisor is 12, or consists only of one fingle Figure, or can be reduced to one, by cutting off Cyphers from its Right-hand, the Work may be easily performed in one Line, thus:

R U L E.

Drawing a Line under the Dividend, set down under its first Figure, how often the Divisor is contained in it; what remains imagine placed before the next Figure; and, considering how often your Divisor is contained in the Sum it makes, set down the Number underneath, as before; and so proceeding through all the Figures, set down what remains at last, in the Place where your Quotient used to stand.

E X A M P L E S. 4)93645(1 12)83675(11 7|00)5635|15(

If you are to divide feveral Numbers by one common Divisor (as in the calculating of Tables, &c.) that you may know exactly at once how often your Divisor will go, in some convenient Corner make a Table of your Divisor, by multiplying it severally by all the nine Digits: Thus, suppose 562 your Divisor:

Proof of DIVISION.

Division is proved by multiplying the Quotient by the Divisor, or the Divisor by the Quotient; and adding what remains of the Division, if there be any thing. If the Sum be found equal to the Dividend, the Operation is just, otherwise there is a Mistake.

PART II.

GEOMETRY.

EOMETRY is the Science of Extension, and is employ'd in the Consideration of Lines, Surfaces and solids; as all Extension is distinguished into Length, Breadth, and Thickness.

This Science had its Rise among the Egyptians, who were in a manner compelled to invent it, to Of its Origin. Temedy the Confusion which generally happen'd in their Lands, from the Overstowings of the River Nile, which carried away all Boundaries, and effaced all the Limits of their Possessions: And thus this Invention, which at first consisted only in measuring the Lands, that every one might have what belonged to him, was called Land-measuring, or Geometry; but the Egyptians afterwards applied themselves to more subtle Researches, and from a very mechanical Exercise, insensibly produced this fine Science, which deserves to be placed among those of the first Rank.

Geometry is not barely useful, but even absolutely necessary. It is by the Help of Geometry that Astronomers make their Observations, regulate the Duration of Times, Scasons, Years, and Cycles, and

and measure the Distance, Motion and Magnitudes of the

feavenly Bodies.

It is by Geometry that Geographers shew us the Magnitude of the whole Earth, delineate the Extent of Seas, and the Divisions of Empires, Kingdoms, and Provinces.

It is from this Science that Architects derive their just Meafures in the Construction of public Edifices, as well as of private

Houfes.

It is by its Affistance that Engineers conduct all their Works, take the Situations and Plans of Towns, the Distance of Places, and in fine, the Measure of such things as are only acceptible

to the Sight.

Such as are in the military Service, are obliged to apply themselves to this Science. It is not only an Introduction to Fortification, (which shews them how to build Ramparts for the Desence of Places, and to construct and make Machines to destroy them) but also gives them great Knowledge and Readiness in the military Art, in the drawing up an Army in Order of Battle, and in marking out the Ground in Encampments. It also shews them how to make Maps of Countries, to take the Plans of Towns, Forts, and Castles, to measure all kinds of Dimensions accessible or inaccessible, to give Designs, and in fine, to render themselves as serviceable by their Understanding and Science, as by their Strength and Courage.

All who profess Defigning should know something of Geometry, because they cannot otherwise perfectly understand A rechitecture nor Perspective, which are two things absolutely received.

cessary in their Art.

Music, Mechanics, and, in a word, all the Sciences where consider Things susceptible of more, and less; i. e. all the precise and accurate Sciences, may be referred to Geometry: for all speculative Truths consisting only in the Relations of Things, and in the Relations between those Relations, they may be all referred to Lines. Consequences may be drawn from them; and these Consequences, again, being rendered sensible by Lines, they become permanent Objects, constantly exposed to a rigorous Attention, and Examination: and thus we have infinite Opportunities both of inquiring into their Certainty, and pursuing them farther.

The Reason, for instance, why we know so distinctly, and mark so precisely, the Concords called Octave, Fifth, Fourth, &c. is, that we have learnt to express Sounds by Lines, i. a. by Chords accurately divided; and that we know that the

Chord

Chord, which founds Octave, is double of that which it makes Octave withal; that the fifth is in the sesquialterate Ratio, or

as three to two; and so of the rest.

The Ear itself cannot judge of Sounds with such Precision; its Judgments are too faint, vague, and variable to form a Science. The finest, best tuned Ear, cannot distinguish many of the Differences of Sounds; whence many Musicians deny any such Differences; as making their Sense their Judge. Some, for instance, admit no Difference between an Octave and three Ditones: and others, none between the greater and lesser Tone; the Comma, which is the real Difference, is insensible to them; and much more the Scisma, which is only half the Comma.

It is only by Reason, then, that we learn, that the Length of the Chord which makes the Difference between certain Sounds, being divisible into several Parts, there may be a great Number of different Sounds contained therein, useful in Music, which yet the Ear cannot distinguish. Whence it follows, that had it not been for Arithmetic and Gometry, we had had no such thing as regular, fixed Music; and that we could only have succeeded in that Art by good Luck, or Force of Imagination, i. e. Music would not have been any Science sounded on incontestable Demonstrations: though we allow that the Tunes composed by Force of Genius and Imagination, are usually more agreeable to the Ear, than those composed by Rule.

So, in Mechanics, the Heaviness of a Weight, and the Diftance of the Center of that Weight from the Fulcrum, or Point it is sustained by, being susceptible of plus and minus, they may both be expressed by Lines; whence Geometry becomes applicable hereto; in virtue whereof, infinite Discoveries have been made,

of the utmost Use in Life.

Geometrical Lines and Figures, are not only proper to reprefent to the Imagination the Relations between Magnitudes, or between Things susceptible of more and less; as Spaces, Times, Weights, Motions, &c. but they may even represent Things which the Mind can no otherwise conceive, e.gr. the Relations

of incommensurable Magnitudes.

We do not, however, pretend, that all Subjects Men may have occasion to enquire into, can be expressed by Lines. There are many not reducible to any such Rule: thus, the Knowledge of an infinitely powerful, infinitely just God, on whom all Things depend, and who would have all his Creatures execute his Orders, to become capable of being happy,

is the Principle of all Morality, from which a thousand table Consequences may be drawn, and yet neither the Prinor the Consequences can be expressed by Lines, or F Malebr. Recher. de la Ver. T. ii.

Indeed, the ancient Egyptians, we read, used to expetheir Philosophical, and Theological Notions by Geen Lines. In their Researches into the Reason of things, the served, that God, and Nature, affect Perpendiculars, Pa Circles, Triangles, Squares, and harmonical Proposition of the Priests and Philosophers to represent the spine and natural Operations by such Figures: in which were followed by Pythagoras, Plato, &c.

But it must be observed, that this Use of Geometry amo Ancients was not strictly scientifical, as among us; but symbolical: they did not argue, or reduce Things and Pro unknown from Lines; but represented or delineated Thing were known. In Essect, they were not used as Means struments of discovering, but Images or Characters, to proor communicate the Discoveries made.

DEFINITIONS.

Of a P O I N T.

Pig. 1. Geom.
Plane 1...

Point is that which has no Parts; that has no Length, Breadth, nor Thic But as no Operation can be performed without the Affil of visible and corporeal things, we must therefore represent mathematical Point by the natural one, which is an Objour Sight, the smallest and least sensible, and is made by Prick of a Pen or Pencil, as the Point marked A.

A central Point, or Center, is a Point from whence a cor Circumference is described; or rather, it is the Middle Figure, as the Point B.

A fecant Point, is a Point through which Lines cross other, and is usually called a Section. C.

Geometry Plate I. Jofan Pa 129

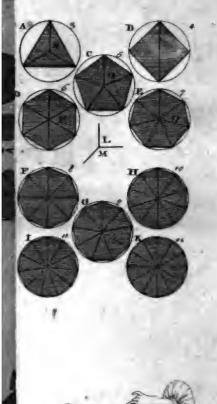


Fig.16 C

is i



A STATE OF THE PROPERTY OF THE

Of LINES.

A Line is a Length without Breadth.

The Line is nothing more than the Passage Plate 1.

ade by a Point from one Place to another, and would be imreceptible, were it not described by the natural Point, which

its Course represents it to us, as AB. CD. EF.

There are as many Sures of Lines are the Point is sufceptible

There are as many Sorts of Lines, as the Point is susceptible

different Movements.

A Right Line, is that which is equally comprized between two Extremities: Or, it is that which a Point describes in Passage directly from one Place to another, without any urnings, as AB.

A Curve Line, is that which departs from a direct Opposion to its Extremities, by one or more Turnings or Windings,

CD.

When this Line is described by the Compasses, it is called ircular, as E.

A Mix'd Line, is that which is both Right and Curve, as .e. Line V..

The Line receives several other Denominations according to various Positions and Properties.

A Perpendicular, is a right Line, which falls Fig. 4. Plate 1.

a cach Side of it equal; AB.

A Plummet Line, is that which descends directly downwards, ithout inclining either to the Right or Lest, and which, ere it infinitely prolonged, would pass through the Center of ite World; C.

The Horizontal, is a Line in equilibrum, or that inclines

qually in all its Parts; DE.

Parallel Lines, are those which are opposite each other, and equal Distances; H.

An Oblique, is a Line which is neither horizontal nor a

lummet, but flanting or acros; FG.

The Base, is the Line upon which any Figure rests; IL. Sides, are the Lines which enclose any Figure; I. N. L. M. A Diagonal, is a Right Line which crosses any Fig. 5.

Gure to two complite Angles of the same Figure:

Plate 1.

igure to two opposite Angles of the same Figure; B.

A Diameter, is a Right Line which crosses any Figure through, Center, and is terminated by its Circumference CD.

A Spiral Line, is a Curve Line which departs from its Center, and the farther, in Proportion as it turns round it-felf; EF.

A Chard or Subtense, is a Right Line extended from one End

of an Arch to the other End thereof; G. H.

An Arch, is Part of a Circle or Circumference; GIH.

A Tangent Line, is that which touches some Figure without passing into it, and without being able to pass into it or cross it, even though it were prolonged; LM.

A Secant, is a Line drawn from the Center of a Circle, cutting it, and meeting with a Tangent without; LO. MO.

If two Lines meet at their Extremities, they either meet directly or indirectly. If directly, they then make but one Line; if indirectly, they constitute an Angle.

Of ANGLES.

T. Fig. 6. A Nagle is the indirect Course of two Lines to the same Point; or rather, it is the Space contained between the indirect Course of two Lines to the same

Point; A. B. C.

When this Course is described by two Right Lines, the Angle is called Rectilinear, and when it is described by two Curve Lines, it is called Curvilinear; but when it is described by two Lines, one of which is a Right and the other a Curve, it is called Mixtilinear.

A. Rectilinear, or Right-lin'd Angle. B. Curvilinear, or Curv'd-lin'd Angle. C. Mixtilinear, or Mix'd-lin'd Angle.

The Rectilinear Angle, according as it is more or less open, receives particular Denominations, as Right, Acute, Obtuse; therefore the Terms Rectilinear, Curvilinear, and Mixtilinear, have regard only to the Nature of the Lines; and those of Right, Acute, and Obtuse, respect only the Quantity of Space contained between the said Lines.

A Right Angle, is when one of its Lines is perpendicular

upon the other; EDF.

An Acute Angle, is that which is less open than the Right; E D G.

An Obtuse Angle, is that which is more open than the Right; F D G.

The Letter D. in the middle shews the Angle.

Definition of Superficies.

A Superficies, is that which has Length and Geom. Plate Breadth, without Thickness.

5. Fig. 7.

According to Geometricians, as the Line is a Production of the Point, so the Superficies is a Production of the Line. Thus, supposing the Line E F was from each of its Extremities drawn to G H, it constitutes the Superficies E F, G H, which is an Extent between Lines, that has Length and Breadth, but not Depth or Thickness; and this is frequently called a Surface; or if it is considered with regard to its Extensities, which are the Lines by which it is encompassed, it is then called a Figure.

If a Superficies is raised, it is called convex; if it is hollow, it is called concave; and if it is flat and even, it is called a

Plane.

B. Convex Superficies.

C: Concave Superficies.

A. Plane Superficies.

D. Convex, Concave, and Plane Superficies.

So far we have only shewn the Construction of the Plane

perficies.

The Termination is the Bounds or Limits of any thing. The Point is the Termination of the Line: the Line is the Termination of the Superficies: and the Superficies is the Termination of a Body.

Of Rettilinear Superficies or Figures.

Ouperficies have particular Names according to Geom. Plate the Number of their Sides.

Geom. Plate 1. Fig. 8.

A. is a Trigon or Triangle, Fig. of three Sides.

B. a Tetragon or Square, Fig. of four Sides.

C. a Pentagon, Fig. of five Sides.

D. an Hexagon, Fig. of fix Sides.

E. an Heptagon, Fig. of seven Sides.

F. an Octagon, Fig. of eight Sides.

G. a Nonagon, Fig. of nine Sides.

H. a Decagon, Fig. of ten Sides.

I. an Undecagon, Fig. of cleven Sides.

K. a Duodecagon, Fig. of twelve Sides.

All these Figures are also called by the general Name of Palygons.

Of TRIANGLES.

TRiangles are diffinguished by the Nature of their Angles, and the Disposition of their Sides: thus,

L is a right angled Triangle
M an obtufe angled Triangle
N an acute angled Triangle
O an equilateral Triangle
P an Hosceles Triangle
Q a Scalene Triangle

One right Angle
One Angle obtuse.
All its Angles acute.
All its Sides equal.
Only two Sides equal.
All its Sides unequal.

Of FIGURES of four Sides.

Plane 1. Fig. A. Is a Square, a Figure of four equal Sides, 9. A. and four right Angles.

B. a Long-Square, a rectangled Superficies, which has its

Angles Right, but not its Sides equal.

C. a Rhumbus, or a quadrilateral Figure, whose four Sides are equal, but not its four Angles.

D. a Rhomboides, whose opposite Sides and Angles are equal, tho' the Figure is neither equiangular nor equilateral.

B. D. are also *Parallelograms*, which are quadrilateral Figure, whose opposite Sides are parallel.

E. a Trapezium, two of whole Sides only are parallel, the two

others equal.

F. a Trapezoid, whose Sides and Angles are unequal.

All other Figures of more than four Sides, are called by the general Name of Multilaterals.

Of Curves, or Curvilinear Figures.

Plate 2. Fig. A. Is a Circle, which is a Superficies or Figure 10.

Description of the Circle, which is a Superficies or Figure 2. Fig. A. perfectly round, described from a Center whose Circumference is equally distant from it. The Circumference is the Extremity of the Circle, or the Line which includes it.

B. an Oval which is a curvilinear Figure described from feveral Centers, and all whose Diameters divide equally in

C. an Elipsis, which is also a curvilinear Figure described from several Centers, but in the form of an Egg, and

which there is but one Diameter that divides it equally in

). a Volute, which is a Figure or Superficies contained in ital Line.

. 2 Cylindrical Superficies.

an irregular culvilinear Figure, composed of several qual curve Lines.

Of Mixed FIGURES.

Is a Semi-Circle, which is so much of a Circle Plate 1. Fig. 1. as is contained from its Diameter either way.

3. a Portion of a Circle, being composed of a Right Line

Part of a Circle.

a great Portion of a Circle, containing more than half

3. a fmall Portion of a Circle, containing less than half

2. A Sector, which is a Figure composed of two Semiimeters, with more or less than half of the Circle.

D. Concentric Figures, are those whose Centers are the

ic.

E. Excentric Figures, are those contained in some measure hin each other, but which have not the same Center.

Of Regular and Irregular FIGURES.

A Regular Figure, is that whose opposite Sides

Plate 1. Fig.
12.

B. An Irregular Figure, is that composed of unequal Sides

i Angles.

EE. Similar Figures are those, of which the Lines of one proportioned to the Lines of the other, tho one may be pater or lesser than the other.

FF. Equal Figures, are those whose Contents are the same,

d which may be fimilar or diffimilar.

C. An Equiangular Figure, has all its Angles equal.

EE. One Figure is Equiangular to another, when all the igles of one are equal to all the Angles of the other.

C.D. An Equilateral Figure, is that whose Sides are all

GG. Similar Curvilinear Figures, are those in which may be cribed, or round which may be circumscribed similar Polygons.

L 2

A X I-

AXIOMS.

Plate 1.

AN Axiom, is such a common, plain, self-eviFig. 13.

An exiom, is such a common, plain, self-evimade more plain and evident by Demonstration, because it
is itself better known than any thing that can be brought to
prove it.

I.

Things equal to one fingle Thing, are in themselves equal.

The Lines AC, AC, which are equal to AB, are also equal to themselves.

П.

If equal Things are added to Things that are equal, the Whole will be equal.

The Lines AC, AC, are equal, The Lines added, CD, CD, are equal, Therefore the Whole, AD, AD, are also equal.

III.

If equal Things are taken from Things that are equal, the Remainder will be equal.

From the equal Lines AD, AD. Take away the equal Parts AC, AC. The remaining Parts CD, CD. Are equal.

IV.

If equal Things are added to Things that are unequal, the Whole will be unequal.

To the unequal Lines DE, DE. Add the equal Lines D, AD. And the whole AE, AE. Will be unequal.

V.

Plate 1. If equal Things are taken away from Things
Pig. 14 which are unequal, the Remainder will be unequal.

From the unequal Lines AE, AE.

Take away the equal Parts AD, AD.

The Remainder DE, DE.

Are unequal.

VI.

Things which are double the Proportion of another, are in

The Right Lines DD, DD. Which are double the Line AD. Are in themselves equal.

VII.

Things which have but half the Proportion of other equal ngs, are in themselves equal.

The Lines AD, AD. Which are only half the Length of the Lines DD, DD.

Are in themselves equal.

What is here faid with regard to Lines, is equally true with pect to Numbers, Superficies and Solids.

folutions of some Questions necessary to facilitate the Practice of Geometry.

I.

To draw a Right Line from the Point A. Plate 1. To the Point B. Fig. 15.

PRACTICE.

Apply the Ruler even with the Points A and B.
Then draw the Line required AB,
By drawing your Pen or Pencil along
The Side of the Ruler, from the Point A
To the Point B.

H

To prolong infinitely the Line CD. From the Extremity D.

PRACTICE.

L 3 III. To

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III.

Fig. 16. To describe a Circle from the Point A
And from the Distance AB

PRACTICE.

Place one of the Points of the Compass in the Po Open the Compasses and extend the other into the Po Turn the Compasses in the Point And by drawing or turning them round from the Po Describe the Circle required

IV.

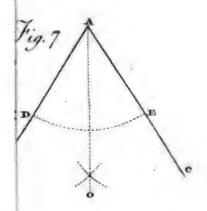
To describe a Section from the given Points

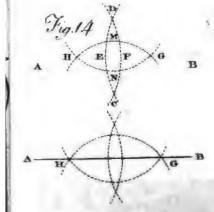
PRACTICE.

Open the Compasses at Discretion, but in such a n nevertheless, that the Distance between its two Points be greater than half the Distance between the two Points E and F.

Having opened the Compasses,
From the Point E describe the Arch LM
From the Point F describe the Arch HI
The Section G
Is what is required.

Geometry Plate II Sa 13;





BOOK I.

On the Drawing of LINES.

PROPOSITION I.

O raise a Perpendicular from a given Point in the middle of a Right Line.

Let C be the given Point in the middle of the Line AB, upon which the Perpendicular is to be raised.

PRACTICE.

From the given Point	C
Describe at Discretion the Semi-Circle	DE
From the Points	DE.
Make the Section	1.
From the Point	C
Draw the Right Line required	CO
Through the Section	I.

Thus the Line CO will be the Perpen dicular upon the given Line B, and raifed from the given Point C.

PROPOSITION II.

To raise a Perpendicular upon the Extremity of Plate 2. a Right Line given.

AB is the Right Line given, at the Extremity of which A, the Perpendicular is to be raifed.

PRACTICE.

Fix at Difcretion the Point	C
Above the Line	AB.
From this Point	C
And the Distance	CA
Describe the Portion of a Circle	EAD.
Draw the Right Line	DCE
Through the Points	D and C
Then draw the Line required	AE.
Which will be perpendicular to.	- AB,
And at the proposed Extremity	A.
T. A	Ou

Otherwife,

From the Point A describe the Arch GHM.
From the Point G describe the Arch AH.
From the Point H describe the Arch AMN.
From the Point M describe the Arch HN.
Then draw the Line required.

PROPOSITION III.

Plate 2. Upon an Angle given, to raise a Right Line, which shall incline neither to the Right nor Left.

Let BAC be the Angle upon which a Right Line is to be raised, that shall not incline either to the Right or Left.

PRACTICE.

From the Angle given	A
Describe at Discretion the Arch	BC.
From the Points or Extremities	B and C
Make the Section	D.
From the Point or Angle given	A
Draw the Right Line required	AD
Through the Section	D
Thus the Right Line	AD
Will be raised upon the Angle	BAC
Without inclining either to the l	Right or Left.

PROPOSITION IV.

Fig. 4. To bring down a Perpendicular Line upon a Right Line given, and from a Point at a Distance from the said Right Line.

Let C be the Point from whence a Perpendicular Line is to

be brought down upon the Line AB.

PRACTICE.

From the given Point	С
Describe at Discretion the Arch	DE,
Cutting the Line	AB
At the Points	D and E.
From these Points	D and E
Make the Section	F.
Then draw the Line	CF.
And the Line	CO

Will be the Line required.

PRO-

PROPOSITION V.

To draw a Line through a given Point, parallel Plate 2. Fig. to a Right Line given.

Let A be the Point through which a Line is to be drawn

parallel to the Line BC.

PRACTICE.

Draw at Discretion the oblique I	ine AD.
From the Point	A
Describe the Arch	DE.
From the Point	D
Describe the Arch	AF.
Make the Arch	DG
Equal to the Arch	AF.
Then draw the Line required	MN
Through the Points	A and G.

Otherwife,

From the Point A describe the Arch Touching the Line	EFG BC,
And without changing the opening of the Compasses, from the Point)
H describe the Arch Then draw the Line required Through the Point	OP A.
And touching the Top of the Arch	LRI.

PROPOSITION VI.

To divide a Right Line given of a determined Plate 2. Fig. Length, into two equal Parts.

Let AB be the proposed Right Line, to be divided equally

in two.

PRACTICE.

From the Point or Extremtty	. A
Describe the Arch	CD.
Then without changing the opening of the Compasses, from the Point or Extremity	} B
Describe the Arch	EF.

GEOMETRY.

It is necessary these two Arches should intersect each other.

Draw the Right Line GH
Through the Section G and H.

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Thus the Line AB, will be divided into two equal Parts, at the Point O.

PROPOSITION VII.

Plate 2. Fig. To divide a given Rectilinear Triangle into two equal Parts.

Let BAC, be the Angle proposed to be divided into two equal Parts.

PRACTICE.

From the Angle
Describe at Discretion the Arch
From the Points
Make the Section
Then draw the Line

A
DE.
D and E
O.
AO

Which will divide the given Angle BAC into two equal Parts.

PROPOSITION VIII.

Plate 2. Fig.

To make a Rectilinear Angle, at the Extremity
of a Right Line, equal to a Rectilinear Angle
given.

Let A be the Extremity of the Line AB, at which an Angle is to be made, equal to the given Rectilinear Angle CDG.

PRACTICE.

From the Angle	D
Describe a Discretion the Arch	CG.
I hen without changing the opening of the Compasses, from the Point	A
or Extremity Describe the Arch	HO.
Make the Arch Equal to the Arch Then draw the Line	CG.
And the Angle	BAE CDG.
Will be equal to the Angle	CDG.

PROPOSITION IX.

To divide a Right Line given into as many equal Plate 2. Fig. Parts as you pleafe.

Let AB be the Line proposed to be divided into fix equal

Parts.

PRACTICE.

From the Extremity	A	
Draw at Difcretion the Line	AC.	
From the Extremity	В	
Draw the Line	BD	
Parallel to the Line	AC.	Prop. 51
Then from the Points	A and B	
And upon the Line	AC and BD,	
fix equal Divisions, viz.	EFGHIL	
Line AC. and		

upon the Line AC

Make

RQPONM upon the Line BD.

Then draw the Line EN, FO, GP, HQ, IR.
And the Line AB, will be divided into fix equal Parts by the Sections STUXY.

PROPOSITION X.

From a given Point, to draw a Right Line Placer. Fig. which shall touch a proposed Circle.

Let A be the Point from whence a Line is to be drawn that

shall touch the Circle DOP.

PRACTICE.

From the Center of the Circle	В	
Draw the Secant Line	BA	
Divide this Line	BA	Prop. 70
Into two equal Parts at	C.	
From this Point	C	
And the Interval	CA	
Describe the Semi-Circle	ADB	
Cutting the Circle at	D.	
Then from the given Point	A	- 4
Draw the Right Line	AE	
Through the Point	D.	

Thus the Right Line AE will be the Tangent Line required.

PRO-

GEOMETRY.

PROPOSITION XI.

Place 2. Fig. To draw a Right Line, which shall tou

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Prop. 2.

Let ABC be the Circle, in the Circumference of white the given Point A.

PRACTICE.

From the Point or Center	D
Draw the Line	DF
Through the given Point	A.
Then to the given Point	A
And upon the Line	\mathbf{DF}
Draw the Perpendicular	AH
Prolonged towards	I.

Thus this Tangent Line HI will touch the Circle at given Point A, which is what the Proposition required.

PROPOSITION XII.

Phues. Fig. A Circle and a Right Line touching it b given, to find the Point where the faid Right I touches the faid Circle.

Let ABC be the Circle touched by the Line GH.
We are to find the Point where the Line touches the Circle

PRACTICE.

From the Center of the Circle F
Bring down the Perpendicular FC

Prop. 4 Upon the touching Line DE.
The Section C will be the touching Point required.

PROPOSITION XIII.

Plane 2. Fig.

To describe a Spiral Line upon a Right]

given.

Let IL be the Line upon which a Spiral Line is to be feribed.

PRACTICE.

Divide half of the Line IL into as many equal Parts as would describe Revolutions upon the said Line.

Geometry Plate III Pa . 145 Fig. 15



EXAMPLE.

Suppose you would describe four upon it.

Divide the half of the Line BI
Into four equal Parts BCE. GI.
Also divide BC
Equally into two at A. Prop. 6.
From this Point A
Describe the Semi-Circles CD, EF, FG, HI.
From the Point B

Describe the Semi-Circles CD, EF, GH, IL. and you will have the Spiral Line required.

PROPOSITION XIV.

Between two given Points, to find two others Plate 2. Fig. directly between them.

Let AB be the given Points, between which two others are to be found directly even with them, and by means of which a Right Line may be drawn from the Point A to the Point B, with a short Ruler.

PRACTICE.

From the Points A and B
Make the Sections C and D.
From these Points C and D
Make the Sections G and H.

These Points G and H will be the Points required; by the Assistance of which one may, at three times, draw a Right Line from the Point A to the Point B, which could not be done at once with a Ruler shorter than the Space between A and B.

BOOK II.

Of the Construction of P LANE Figures.

PROPOSITION I.

Pane 3. Fig. T O construct an Equilateral Triangle upon a Right Line given of a determined Length.

Let AB be the Line upon which an Equilateral Triangle is to be formed.

PRACTICE.

From the Extremity	A
And the Interval	AB
Describe the Arch	BD.
From the Extremity	В
And the Interval	BA
Describe the Arch	AE.
From the Section	C
Draw the Lines	CA, CB.
ABC will be the Equilateral T	

PROPOSITION II.

Plate 3. Fig. To make a Triangle of three Right Lines, equal to three Right Lines given.

Let A, B, C, be the three Lines given, equal to which? Triangle of three Right Lines is to be made.

Draw the Right Line	DE
Equal to the Line	AA.
Form the Point	D
Taking the Length of the Line	BB,
Describe the Arch	GF.
Form the Point	E
Taking the Length of the Line	CC,
Describe the Arch	HI.
From the Section	O
Draw the Lines	OE, OD.

The Triangle DEO will be composed of three Right Lines

equal to the three Right Lines given. AA, BB, CC.

Observe, that of three Right Lines given, two of them taken together must necessarily be greater than the Third, otherwise they could not make a Triangle.

PROPOSITION

To draw a Square upon a Right Line given of Plate 3. Fig. a determined Length.

Let AB be the Right Line given, of a determined Length, upon which a Square is to be formed.

PRACTICE.

Raife the Perpendicular	AC.	7. 1. P. 2.
From the Point	A	
Describe the Arch	BC.	
From the Points	BC	
Extending the Compasses to	A	
Make the Section	Ď.	
From the Point	D	
Draw the Lines	DC, DR.	

ABCD will be the Square required, formed upon the Right Line-given, AB.

PROPOSITION IV.

To draw a Regular Pentagon upon a Right Plate 3. Fig. Line given.

Let AB be the Line given, upon which a regular Pentagon is to be formed.

PRAG-

GEOMETRY.

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PRACTICE.

K .	From the Extremity	A
V)	Extending the Compasses to the Ex	tremity B
30.0	Describe the Arch	BDF.
R. 1. P. 3.	Raife the Perpendicular	AC
	Divide the Arch	BC
	Into five equal Parts	IDLM
	Draw the Right Line	AD
B. 1. P. 6.	Divide the Base	AB
	Equally in two at	O
	Raife the Perpendicular	OE.
	From the Section	E
4	Extending the Compaffes to the Po	oint A
	Describe the Circle	ABFGH
	and the second s	

Then divide the Circumference of this Circle into fit Parts of an equal Length with the Line AB, and you we have the Regular Equiangular Equilinear Pentagon ABFGI

PROPOSITION V.

To draw a Regular Hexagon upon a Right Line given. Let AB be the Right Line upon which an Hexagon is to formed.

PRACTICE.

From the Extremities	A and B
Extending the Compasses from	A to B.
And from	B to A.
Describe the Arches	AC, BC.
From the Section	C
Describe the Circle	ABEFG

Divide this Circle into fix Parts of an equal Length wi the Line AB, and you will have the Regular Hexago ABEFGD, formed upon the Right Line given AB.

PROPOSITION VI.

Upon a Right Line given, to describe whatever Polygo you have a mind, from the Hexagon to the Duodecagon Let AB be the Line, upon which is to be formed an Hex gon, an Heptagon, or an Octagon, &c.

Divide the Line AB equally in two at O OI B. 1, P. 6. Raise the Perpendicular From the Point B describe the Arch AC Divide AC into fix equal Parts MNPQR his you must do if your Design is to make an Heptagon. From the Point C and the first Division CM Describe the Arch MD will be the Center from whence to describe a Circle capaof containing seven times the Line AB. you would make an Octagon, From the Point C, and the 2d Division CN Describe the Arch NE will be the Center from whence to describe a Circle cae of containing eight times the Line AB.

PROPOSITION VII.

pon a Right Line given, to draw whatever Polygon you e, from 12, to one of 24 Sides. et AB be the Line upon which a Polygon is to be formed.

you would describe a Nonagon, you must take three Dins CP, and so of the others, always augmenting one Dinse

PRACTICE.

Divide the Arch
Into twelve equal Parts
From the Point
Take as many Divisions upon the Line
S will be necessary, above twelve, to have as many Divios its Circle as you require Sides.

EXAMPLE.

To make a Figure of fifteen Sides. From the Point And the third Division CE Describe the Arch ΕO C of 12, and EO of 3, will make together 15 Sides. From the Point O and the Space OB Describe the Arch ${f BF}$ F From the Point FΑ And the Space escribe a Circle, which will contain 15 times the given and so of the other Sorts of Polygons. *P* R O-'or. L

PROPOSITION VIII.

Upon a Right Line given, to describe a Portion of a capable of containing an Angle equal to an Angle given.

Let AB be a Line of determined Length, upon wh Portion of a Circle is to be described, capable of containi Angle equal to the given Angle C.

PRACTICE.

B. z. Prop. 8.	Make the Angle	BAD
	Equal to the Angle	C
	Upon the Line	AD
B. t. Prop. 6.		AE
	Divide the Line	AB
B. 1. Prop. 6.	In two equal Parts at	H
200	Raise the Perpendicular	HF
	From the Section	F
	And the Space	FA
	Describe the Portion of	

The Angles which you shall make in this Portion Circle upon the Right Line given AB, will be equal to Angle C.

PROPOSITION IX.

To find the Center of a given Circle.

Let ABC be the given Circle whose Center is to be four

PRACTICE.

	Terminated by the Circumfere	
	Circle	ABC
B. 1. Prop. 1.	Divide this Right Line	AB
	In two, by the Line	DC
	Alfo divide this Right Line	CD
	Into two equal Parts at	F.

The Point F will be the Center required of the C ABC,

PROPOSITION X.

To finish a Circle begun, whose Center is lost. Let ABC be the given Part of a Circle, whose Center is to be found in order to finish it.

PRACTICE.

Place at Difcretion the three Points ABC in the Circumference begun.

From the Points	A and B
Make the Section	E and F
Draw the Right Line	EF
From the Points	B and C
Make the Sections	G and H
Draw the Right Lines	GH
From the Center of the Interfect	ion I
And the Space	IA
Finish the Circumference.	

PROPOSITION XI.

To draw a Circumference through three given Points. Let ABC be the three Points through which the Circumference of a Circle is to pass.

PRACTICE.

From the given Points

A, B, C,
Describe the 3 Circles DEH, DEF, FGL.
of an equal Circumfernce, and cutting
each other at the Points D and E, F and G.
Then draw the Right Lines
Till they meet together at
From this Point
And the Space
IA
Describe the Circumference required.

PROPOSITION XII.

To draw an Oval upon a given Length. Let AB be the Length upon which an Oval is to be formed.

PRAC-

AB Divide the given Length AC, DB. Into three equal Parts C and D From the Points CA, DB, And the Spaces AEF, BEF. Describe the Circles E and F, From the Sections EH And the Space of the Diameter Describe the Arches IH, OP. AIHBPO, will be the Oval required.

PROPOSITION XIII.

To draw an Oval upon two given Diameters.

AB, CD, are the Diameters upon which an Oval is to formed.

PRACTICE.

Make the Ruler MO Equal to the great Semi-Diameter AE. Upon this Rule Make also the Length MN Being equal to the little Semi-Diameter CE. This Ruler being thus formed, place it in fuch a man upon the Diameters AB, CD, That the Point N May be exactly upon the Line AB, And the Extremity O, Exactly even with the Line CD.

The Ruler being thus placed, keep strictly to the Directi here given with regard to its Position. Turn it round, and will describe the Oval by the Extremity M.

PROPOSITION XIV.

To find the Center and the two Diameters of an Oval. Let ABCD be the Oval whose Center and Diameters at be found.

In the given Oval	ABCD	
Draw at Discretion		B. 1. Prop.
The two parallel Lines	AH, HI.	5•
Divide these Lines	AN, HI,	
Equally in two at	L and M.	
Draw the Line	PLMO	
Then divide it equally in t	wo at E.	
Point F will be the Conter	required from	which de-

The Point E will be the Center required, from which deribe at Discretion the Circle FGQ,

Cutting the Oval at	F and G
From these Sections	F and G
Draw the Right Line	FG
Divide it equally in two at	R
Draw the great Diameter	BD
Through the Points	ER
From the Center	E
Draw the little Diameter	AEC
Parallel to the Line	FG.

Thus you have the Center, and the Diameter required.

PROPOSITION XV.

To conftruct a Rectilinear Figure upon a Right Line iven of a determined Length, similar to a Rectilinear Figure iven.

Let AB be the Line upon which a Figure is to be formed ike to the Figure CDEF.

			١.
Draw the Diagonal	CE		~
Make the Angle	ABG	B. 1. Prop.	
Equal to the Angle	FCE	8.	
Make the Angle	BAG		
Equal to the Angle	CFE.		
The Triangle	ABG		
Will be like unto the Triangle	CFE.		
Alfo,	_		
Make the Triangle	ÁGH		
Like the Triangle	CED,		
And the whole Figure	ABGH		
Will be fimilar to the whole Fig.	CDEF.		
М 3		BOOR	_

BOOK III.

Of the Inscription of FIGURES.

IN Geometry a Figure is faid to be inferibed in another, when all the Angles of the Figure inferibed touch either the Angles, Sides, or Planes of the other Figure.

To describe an Equilateral Triangle, an Hexagon or a Do-

decagon, in a given Circle.

Let ACD be the Circle in which an Equilateral Triangle, &c. is to be described.

PRACTICE.

For the Equilateral Triangle. From the Point Extend the Compasses to the Semi-Diameter. ΑB CBD And describe the Arch CD Draw the Right Line Extend this Space of the Compasses CD From the Point С To the Point F Draw the Lines FC, FD. CDF will be the Triangle required.

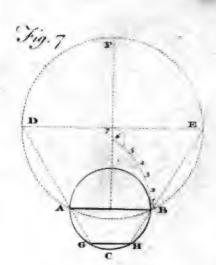
For the HEXAGON.

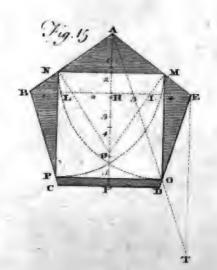
Mark the Semi-Diameter AB fix times round the given Circumference.

For the Dodecagon.

Divide the Arch of the Hexagon AC equally in two at 0, AO will be a fingle Side of the Dodecagon required.

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PROPOSITION II.

To inscribe a Square and an Octagon in a given Circle. Let ABCD be the Circle in which a Square and an Octagon is to be inscribed.

PRACTICE.

For the SQUARE.

Draw the two Diameters	AB, CD
Cutting each other at Right Ang	les; that is, draw
the Right Line	CD
Through the Center of the Circle	, O
Then from the Points or Extremitie	es C and D
Make the Sections	I and L
Then draw the Right Line	IL
Through the Center	O
Thus thefe Lines or Diameters	AB, CD
Cutting each other at Right Angles	s, draw the
Lines AC, AD,	
ABCD will be the Square required.	

And A

For the OCTAGON.

Subdivide each Quarter of the Circle in two, and you will have the Oslagon.

PROPOSITION III.

To inscribe a Pentagon and a Decagon in a given Circle. Let ABCD be the given Circle.

PRACTICE.

Draw the two Diameters	AB, CD
Cutting each other at Right A	ngles in E.
Divide the Semi-Diameter	CE
Equally in two at	F.
From this Point	F
And the Space	FA
Describe the Arch	AG
From the Point	A
And the Space	AG
Describe the Arch	GH
The Right Line	HA :

will divide the Circle in five equal Parts. .M 4

For the DECAGON.

Subvide each fifth Part of the Circle equally in two.

PROPOSITION IV.

To inscribe an Heptagon in a given Circle. Let ABC be the Circle in which an Heptagon is to be inscribed.

PRACTICE.

Draw the Semi-Diameter	IA
From the Extremity	A
And the Space	AI
Describe the Arch	CIC.
Draw the Right Line	CC
The half of which	CO

will divide the Circumference of the Circle into feven equal Parts, which gives the Heptagon required.

PROPOSITION V.

To inscribe a Nonagon in a given Circle.

Let BCD be the given Circle in which a Nonagon is to be inscribed.

PRACTICE.

Draw the Semi-Diameter	AB
From the Extremity	\mathbf{B}
And the Space	BA
Describe the Arch	CAD
Draw the Right Line	CD
Prolonged towards	F.
Make the Line	EF
Equal to the Line	AB
From the Point	E
Describe the Arch	FG
From the Point	F
Describe the Arch	EG
Draw the Right Line	AG

DH will be the ninth Part of the Circumference, which therefore gives you the Nonagon required.

PROPOSITION VI.

describe an Undecagon in a given Circle.

AEF be the given Circle in which an Undecagon is to ribed.

PRACTICE.

Draw the Semi-Diameter AB B. 1. P. 6. Divide this Semi-Diameter AB C Equally in two at From the Points A and C And the Space AC CDI, AD. Describe the Arches From the Point And the Space ID Describe the Arch DO. e Length CO will be an exact Side of the Undecagon re-

PROPOSITION VII.

a given Circle to inscribe whatever Polygon you please. : BAC be a Circle in which you would inscribe an gon.

PRACTICE.

Draw the Diameter AB Describe the Circle ABF Capable of containing 7 times AB B. s. P. 5, AB 6, 7, 8. As if you would form upon the Line A Polygon like that which you are to infcribe in the given Circle ABC Draw the Diameter DB Parallel to the Diameter ΑB DAG, EBH Draw the Right Lines Through the Extremities DA, EB. GH will divide the given Circle ABC Into feven equal Parts. d thus of all other Polygons.

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PROPOSITION VIII.

To take a Portion from a given Circle, capable of containing an Angle, equal to a Recilinear Angle given.

Let ACE be the given Circle, from which a Portion is to be taken, capable of containing an Angle equal to the Angle D.

PPACTICE.

	Draw the Semi-Diameter		AB
B. 1. P. 10.	Draw the touching Line	14	AF
	Make the Angle		FAC
E. 1. P. 8.	Equal to the given Angle		D
	All the Angles which shall	be	formed
	upon the Line		AC
	And in the Portion		AEC
	Will be to the given Angle		D. ~
And th	ous the Portion AEC, answers w	hat	was required.

PROPOSITION IX.

To inscribe a Triangle in a given Circle, equiangular to a Triangle given.

Let ABC be the Circle in which a Triangle is to be inscribed like the Triangle DEF.

PRACTICE.

B. 1. P. 10. Draw the touching Line	GH
From the Point where it touches	Α
Make the Angle	HAC
B. 1. P. 8. Equal to the Angle	E.
Make also the Angle	GAB
B. 1. P. 8. Equal to the Angle	D.
Draw the Line	· BC.
ABC is the Triangle required, like the gi	ven Triangle DEF.

PROPOSITION X.

To inscribe a Circle in a given Triangle.

Let ABC be the Triangle in which a Circle is to be inscribed.

Divide each of the two Angles	B and C
Equally in two	
By the Right Lines	BD, CD. B. 1. P. 7.
From the Section	D
Bring down the Perpendicular	DF.
From the Section or Center	D B. 1. P. 4.
And the Space	DF,
Describe the Circle required	EFG.

PROPOSITION XL

To inscribe a Square in a given Triangle. Let ABC be the Triangle in which a Square is to be inibed.

PRACTICE.

Raise the Perpendicular	AD.	B. 1. P. 2.
At the Extremity A of the Base	AB	
Make this Perpendicular	CIA	
Equal to the Base	AB.	-
From the Angle	C	
Draw the Line	CE	B. 1. P. 5.
Parallel to the Line	AD.	
Draw the oblique Line	DE	
From the Section	F	•
Draw the Line	FG	
Parallel to the Base	AB.	
Draw the Lines	FH, GI	
Parallel to the Line	CE	•
FGHI will be the Square required.		

PROPOSITION XII.

To inscribe a Regular Pentagon in an Equilateral Trile. Let ABC be the Triangle in which a Pentagon is to be aibed.

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PRACTICE.

B. s. P. 4. Bring down the Perpendicular	AI
From the Center	A
Describe the Arch	BIM
Divide into 5 equal Parts the A	Arch BI.
Mark also a fixth Part	IM
Draw the Line	AM
Divide	AM
B. s. P. 6. Into two equal Parts at	L.
From the Point	A
Describe the Arch	- LD
Draw the Right Line	LD to H.
Make the Part	AG
Equal to the Part	BH.
Draw the Right Lines	DG, MC
From the Center	DG, MC
	N
And the Space of the Section	NO.
Describe the Arch	NO.
From the Points	
Describe the Arches	DQ, DP.
	P, PQ, NQ.
DOPNQ will make the Pentagon requ	uired.

PROPOSITION XIII.

To inscribe an Equilateral Triangle in a Square.

Let ABCD be the Square in which an Equilateral Triangle is to be formed.

Draw the Diagonals	AC, BD.
From the Center	E
And the Space	EA.
Describe the Circle	ABCD
From the Point	С
And the Space	CE
Describe the Arch	GEF.
Draw the Right Lines	AF, AG.
Draw the Right Line	HI.
AHI will be the Equilateral Triangle	required.

PROPOSITION XIV.

To inscribe an Equilatetal Triangle in a Pentagon. Let ABCDE be the Pentagon in which an Equilateral Triangle is to be inscribed.

PRACTICE.

From the Point And the Space of the Semi-Diameter AF. Describe the Arch Divide this Arch Equally in two at N. Draw the Line From the Point And the Space AI Describe the Arch Draw the Lines AH, HI. AHI will be the Triangle required.	Circumscribe the Circle	ABCDE. B. 2. P. 11.
Describe the Arch Divide this Arch Equally in two at Draw the Line From the Point And the Space Describe the Arch Draw the Lines AH, HI.	From the Point	\mathbf{A}_{i}
Describe the Arch Divide this Arch Equally in two at Draw the Line From the Point And the Space Describe the Arch Draw the Lines AH, HI.	And the Space of the	Semi-Diameter AF.
Equally in two at N. Draw the Line ANI. From the Point A And the Space AI Describe the Arch Draw the Lines AH, HI.	Describe the Arch	
Draw the Line ANI. From the Point A And the Space AI Describe the Arch IOH Draw the Lines AH, HI.	Divide this Arch	FL
Draw the Line ANI. From the Point A And the Space AI Describe the Arch IOH Draw the Lines AH, HI.	Equally in two at	N.
And the Space AI Describe the Arch IOH Draw the Lines AH, HI.	Draw the Line	ANI.
Describe the Arch IOH Draw the Lines AH, HI.	From the Point	A '
Draw the Lines AH, HI.	And the Space	ΑI
	Describe the Arch	IOH
	Draw the Lines	AH, HI.
	AHI will be the Triangle requir	

PROPOSITION XV.

To inscribe a Square in a Pentagon.

Let ABCDE be the Pentagon in which a Square is to be nscribed.

Draw the Right Line	BE
At the Extremity	E
Bring down the Perpendicular	ET.
Make this Perpendicular	ET
Equal to the Line	BE
Draw the Line	TA
From the Section	O
Draw the Line	OP
Parallel to the Side	CD.
At the Extremities	O and P
Raife the Perpendiculars	OM, PN.
Draw the Line	NM.
P will be the Souare required.	

BOOK IV.

Of the Circumscription of Figures.

A Figure is faid to be circumscribed, when either the gles, Sides, or Planes of the circumscribed Figure is all the Angles of the Figure that is inscribed.

PROPOSITION I.

To circumscribe a Circle round a given Triangle.

Let ABC be the Triangle round which a Circle is to circumscribed.

PRACTICE.

Describe the Circumference ABC From the three Points ABC, And you will have the Circle required.

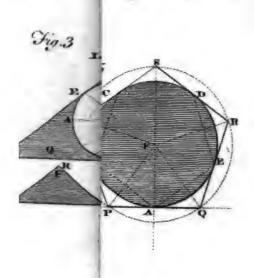
PROPOSITION II.

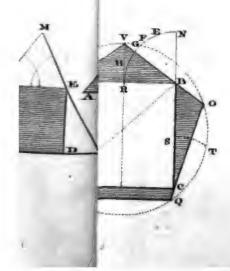
To circumscribe a Circle round a given Square.

Let ABCD be the Square round which a Circle is to circumscribed.

Draw the two Diagonals	AB, CD.
From the Section or Center	G
And the Space	GA
Describe the Circle required	ABCD.









PROPOSÎTION III.

Fo circumferibe a Triangle round a Circle, equiangular to a langle given.

Let DEV be the Circle round which a Triangle is to be ned like the Triangle FGH.

PRACTICE.

Draw the Diameter	AB	
Through the Center	C.	
Make the Angle	ACE	B. t. P.3.
Equal to the Angle	H.	
Make the Angle	BCD	•
Equal to the Angle	G,	
Prolong these Lines	EC, DC.	
Towards	R and S.	
Draw the Tangent Line	NO	B. z. P. 5.
Parallel to the Line	DR.	
Draw the Tangent Line	OI	
Parallel to the Line	ES.	
Draw also the Line	NI	
Parallel to the Diameter	AB.	
		. T.

NO will be the Triangle required, equiangular to the Trile FGH, and circumscribed round the Circle DEV.

PROPOSITION IV.

To circumscribe a Square round a Circle.

Let ABCD be the Circle round which a Square is to be cir
sscribed.

PRACTICE.

Draw the Diameters

Cutting each other at Right Angles in O.
From the Points

A, B, C, D.
And the Space

Describe the Semi-Circles HOG, HOE, EOF, FOG.
Draw the Right Lines EF, FG, GH, HE.
Through the Sections

E, F, G, H.

F, G, H, will be the Square required.

PROPOSITION V.

To circumscribe a Pentagon round a given Circle. Let ABCDE be the Circle round which a Pentagon to be circumscribed.

PRACTICE.

B. 3. P. 3. Infcribe the Pentagon
From the Center
And thro' the Middle of each of its Sides
Draw the Lines FO, FP, FQ, FR, FS.
Draw the Line
FA
Draw the Tangent Line
Through the Point
From the Center
And with the Interval
Describe the Circle
OPQRS.

Then draw the Sides of the Pentagon required through the Sections OPQRS.

PROPOSITION VI.

To circumscribe a Regular Polygon round a Regul Polygon.

Let BCDEFG be the given Polygon, round which a lil Polygon is to be circumscribed.

PRACTICE.

Prolong two of the Sides, as BG, EF. Till they interfect at H. Draw the Line AH Draw the Line FI B. 1. P. 7. Cutting the Angle GFH Equally in two From the Center Α ΑI And the Space Describe the Circle IMO. Draw the Radiuses AL, AM, AN, AO. Through the Middle of each Side.

Then draw the Sides of the exterior Polygon required the the Sections

PROPOSITION VII.

To circumscribe a Square round an Equilateral Triangle. A, B, C, is an Equilateral Triangle round which a Square is be circumscribed.

PRACTICE.

Draw the Base	BC
Equally in two at	E
Prolong this Base	BC
From both Ends towards	D and D.
Make the Lines	ED, ED
Equal to the Line	EA.
From the Point	E
And the Space	EC
Describe the Semi-Circle	BFC
Draw the Line	AEF.
From the Point	F
Draw the Lines	FG, FBG.
will be the Square required.	•

AGFG will be the Square required.

PROPOSITION VIII.

To circumscribe a Pentagon round an Equilateral Triangle. ABC is the given Triangle round which a Pentagon is to be cumfcribed.

PRACTICE.

From the Points or Angles	A, B, C.
And with the same Opening	of the Com-
passes, Describe at Discretion the Arch	es DI, LP, HE.
Divide the Arch	DO
Into five equal Parts	1, 2, 3, 4, 5.
From the Center or Section	Ŏ.
And with the Space to the 4th	Division ON
Describe the Arch	NZE.
Draw the Right Line	AEF
Draw the Arch	MP
Equal to the Arch	EN
Draw the Right Line	PCG PCG
Equal to the Line	FA
Make the Arch	DH
Equal to the Arch	DE
Draw the Sides	AI, IR
Equal to the Sides	AF, BG.
The Side GR will finish the Pentago	
Vol. I. N	•

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PROPOSITION IX.

To circumscribe a Triangle round a Square, equiangul Triangle given.

Let DEFG be the Square, round which a Triangle is formed, like the Triangle ABC.

PRACTICE.

Make the Angle	AFM
B. 1. P. 8. Equal to the Angle	A
Make the Angle	MEF
Equal to the Angle	В
· Prolong the Lines	ME, MF, MD
Towards	I and H.

MHI will be the Triangle required, like the Triangle and circumscribed round the given Square DEFG.

PROPOSITION X.

To circumscribe a Pentagon round a Square.

ABCD is a Square, round which a Pentagon is to be cumscribed.

PRACTICE.

Prolong the Side	BC
To wards	N
Di vide the Side	AB
Equally in two at	\mathbf{R}
Raise the Perpendicular	RV
From the Points	BDC
And with the same Space	BR
Draw the Arches	RN, ST, ST.
Divide the Arch	RN
Into five equal Parts	RHGFEN
Make the Angle	RBV
W ith the Space of two I	Divisions RG
Make the Angles	SCT, SDT
With the Space of one L	Division RH
Prol ong the Lines	VB, CT, to O.
Prol ong the Lines Make the Line	OQ
Equal to the Line	OV.
he others in the fame Man	ner and man will

Draw the oth ers in the same Manner, and you will have Penta gon required.

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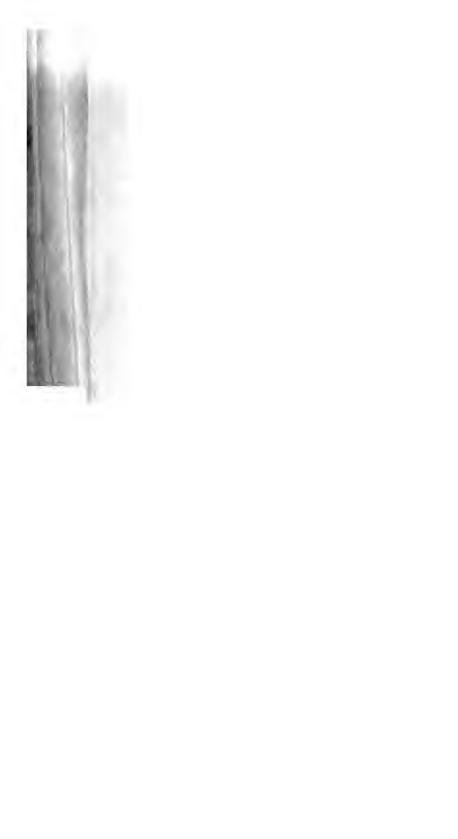
Geometry Plate 17.18. 105

H.

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BOOK V.

Of Proportional LINES.

PROPOSITION I.

O find a mean Proportional between two given Lines.

Let A and B be the Lines between which a mean Proional is to be found.

PRACTICE.

Draw a Line of an undetermin'd Length	GH
Make	CE
Equal to the Line	A
Make	ED
Equal to the Line	В
Divide	CD
Equally in two at	I
From this Point	1
With the Space	IC
Describe the Semi-Circle	CFD
Raise the Perpendicular	EF
. I in the will be a man Demantical Later	A -

his Line EF will be a mean Proportional between A and B.

PROPOSITION II.

he whole of two Extremes being given, and the mean Proonal, to distinguish each Extreme.

et AB be the Extent of the two Extremes, (that is, two yths joined together without Diffinction) to which the Line a mean Proportional, and by which the Point where the Extremes meet is to be found.

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PRACTICE.

Divide the v	whole Line	AB
Equally in t	wo at	G
B. r. P. 6. From this P	oint	G
With the Sp	ace	GA
Describe the	Semi-Circle	AEB
Raife the Pe		BD
Equal to the		.C
Draw the L	ine	DE
B. r. P. 5. Parallel to th		AB
From the Se		E
Draw the L		EF
Parallel to th		BD

F will be the Point where the Extremes meet, and thus or its Equal EF, will be a mean between the Extremes and FB.

PROPOSITION III.

The mean Proportional between two Lines being given, a the Difference of the Extremes, to find the Extremes.

Let GH be the mean Proportional, and AB the Difference the Extremes, whose Length is to be found.

PRACTICE.

Raise the Perpendicular	BC
At the Extremity of the Difference	ce AB
And equal to the mean	GH
Divide the Difference	AB
Equally in two at	D
Prolong it towards	E and F.
From the Point	\mathbf{D}
With the Space	DC
Describe the Semi-Circle	ECF.
BE, BF, will be the Extremes required.	

PROPOSITION IV.

From a Right Line given, to take a Part, which shall be mean Proportional between the Remainder and another Rig Line given.

Let AA be the Line from whence a Part is to be taken, who shall be a mean Proportional between the Part remaining, at the given Line BB.

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Draw the undetermined Line	CD
Draw the Lines	CE, ED
Equal to the Lines	BB and AA
Describe the Semi-Circle	CFD
Raise the Perpendicular	EF
Divide the Line	CE
Equally in two at	В
From this Point	В
With the Space	\mathbf{BF}
Describe the Arch	FG
Take off the Part required	AH
Equal to the Part	EG.

AH will be the mean Proportional between the Remainder II, and the other Line proposed BB.

PROPOSITION V.

Two Right Lines being given, to find a third Proportional.

AB, AC, are the two given Right Lines, to which a third roportional is to be found.

PRACTICE.

Make at Discretion the Angle	DNE.
Take off the Part	NH
Equal to the Line	AB
Take off the Part	NO
Equal to the Line	AC
Also take off	HD
Equal to the Line	AC
Draw the Line	HO
Draw the Line	DE
Parallel to the Line	HO.
EO will be the third Proportional required.	

PROPOSITION VL

To find a fourth Proportional.

A, B, C, are the three given Lines, to which a fourth is to be found, which shall be to the third, as the second is to the irst.

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PRACTICE.

Make at Discretion the Angle	GDH
Cut off the Part	DE
Equal to the Line	A
Cut off the Part	DF
Equal to the Line	B
Cut off the Part	EG
Equal to the Line	C
Draw the Line	EF
Draw the Line	GH
Parallel to the Line	EF.
FH will be the fourth Proportional required.	

PROPOSITION VII.

Between two Right Lines given, to find two mean Propositionals.

Let AH and CB be the given Lines between which two mean Proportionals are to be found.

PRACTICE.

Draw the Line		AB
Equal to the Line		AH
Bring down the Perpendicular		BC
Equal to the Line		CB
Draw the Line		AC
Divide this Line		AC
Equally in two at		F
Raife the Perpendiculars	AO,	CR
From the Point or Center		F
Describe the Arch		DE.
In such a manner that the Chord		DE
May touch the Angle		В.

AD, CE, will be the mean Proportionals to the given Line AH, CB.

PROPOSITION VIII.

Two Right Lines being given, to divide each of them to two, in fach a manner that the four Segments shall be proper tional.

AB, AC, are the Lines proposed to be divided according the Proposition.

Make the Right Angle	BOC
Make the Line	BO
Equal to the Line .	AB
Make the Line	OC
Equal to the Line	AC
Draw the Subtense	BC
Describe the Semi-Circle	BDO
From the Section	D
Draw the Line	DE
Parallel to the Line	CO
The Line	DF
Parallel to the Line	EO
AB will be divided at	E
OC will also be divided at	F.
So that BE will be to	ED
As ED is to DF, and ED to DF	
As DF is to FC.	

PROPOSITION IX.

Excess of the Diagonal of a Square above its Sides being to find the Length of the said Side.

AB be the Excess of the Diagonal of a Square above its whose Length is to be found.

PRACTICE.

Raife the Perpendicular	BC
Equal to the Excess	BA
Draw the Line	AC
Prolonged towards	D.
From the Point	C
And the Space	BC
Describe the Arch	BD.

will be the Side of the Square, of which AB is the of the Diagonal AE above the Length of the faid ID.

PROPOSITION X.

cut a given Right Line in Extreme and mean Propor-

AB be the Line to be so divided, that the Rectangle sed of the whole Line and of one of its Parts, shall be to the Square formed upon the other Part.

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PRACTICE.

Make at Discretion the Angle	GDH
Cut off the Part	DE
Equal to the Line	-A
Cut off the Part	DF
Equal to the Line	В
Cut off the Part	$\mathbf{E}\mathbf{G}$
Equal to the Line	C
Draw the Line	EF
Draw the Line	GH
Parallel to the Line	EF.
FH will be the fourth Proportional required.	

PROPOSITION VII.

Between two Right Lines given, to find two mean Propostionals.

Let AH and CB be the given Lines between which two mean Proportionals are to be found.

PRACTICE.

Draw the Line		AB
Equal to the Line		AH
Bring down the Perpendicular		BC
Equal to the Line		CB
Draw the Line		AC
Divide this Line		AC
Equally in two at		F
Raife the Perpendiculars	AO,	
From the Point or Center		F
Describe the Arch		DE
In such a manner that the Chord		DE
May touch the Angle		В.

AD, CE, will be the mean Proportionals to the given Line AH, CB.

PROPOSITION VIII.

Two Right Lines being given, to divide each of them is two, in fach a manner that the four Segments shall be proper tional.

AB, AC, are the Lines proposed to be divided according the Proposition.

Make the Right Angle	BOC
Make the Line	BO
Equal to the Line .	AB
Make the Line	OC
Equal to the Line	AC
Draw the Subtense	BC
Describe the Semi-Circle	BDO
I	
From the Section	D
Draw the Line	DE
Parallel to the Line	CO
The Line	DF
Parallel to the Line	EO
AB will be divided at	E
OC will also be divided at	F.
So that BE will be to	ED
As ED is to DF, and ED to DF	
As DF is to FC.	

PROPOSITION IX.

he Excess of the Diagonal of a Square above its Sides being to find the Length of the said Side.

t AB be the Excess of the Diagonal of a Square above its whose Length is to be found.

PRACTICE.

Raise the Perpendicular	BC
Equal to the Excess	BA
Draw the Line	AC
Prolonged towards	D.
From the Point	C
And the Space	BC
Describe the Arch	BD.

D will be the Side of the Square, of which AB is the so of the Diagonal AE above the Length of the said AD.

PROPOSITION X.

o cut a given Right Line in Extreme and mean Propor-

at AB be the Line to be so divided, that the Rectangle posed of the whole Line and of one of its Parts, shall be I to the Square formed upon the other Part.

N 4

PRAC-

GEOMETRY.

PRACTICE.

Raife the Perpendicular	AD
Prolong it towards	C
Make	AC
Equal to the half of	AB
From the Point	C
With the Space	CB
Describe the Arch	BD
From the Point	A
With the Space	AD
Describe the Arch	DE
The Line	AB
Will be divided at	E

According to the Proposition; for if you make the Rectan AH, composed of the Line AB, and of the Part BE, it will equal to the Square AF, formed upon the other Part AE.

PROPOSITION XI.

To divide a Right Line of a determined Length, accordi to given Proportions.

Let AB be a Line proposed to be divided according to t Proportions C, D, E, F.

From the Point or Extremity	Α
Draw at Discretion the Line	AG
Make AH	AH
Equal to the Line or Proporti	on C
Make	HI
Equal to the Line	D
Make	IL
Equal to the Line	E
Make	LM
Equal to the Line	F.
Draw the Line	BM
	LN, IO, HP
Parallels to the Line	BM.
The Line AB will be divided as requi	ired at the Point
	P. O. N.

PROPOSITION XII.

pon a Right Line given, to form two Rectangles according given Proportion.

3 is the Line upon which two Rectangles are to be ed, which shall in themselves be according to the Proon of C and D.

PRACTICE.

1 10 11 10 2.		
Divide the Line	AB	*
At the Point	E	`
According to the Proportion of	C to D.	
Make the Square	ABHF	B. 2. P. 3.
Draw the Line	EI	•
Parallel to the Line	AF	
I, AEIF will be the Rectangles requir	ed.	
For the Rectangle	ΑĪ	
Is to the Rectangle	EH	
As the Line	D	
Is to the Line	C.	,

MECHA-

MECHANICS.

THE following Example of the Nature and Uses of the Mechanic Powers, will not, perhaps, be thought unnecessary, or at least, not improper in this Place.

Mechanics is a mix'd mathematical Science, which confiders Motion and moving Powers, their Nature and Laws,

with the Effects thereof, in Machines, &c.

That Part of Mechanics which confiders the Motion of

Bodies arising from Gravity, is by some called Statics.

Mechanical Powers, denote the fix simple Machines; to which all others, how complex soever, are reducible, and of the Assemblage whereof they are all compounded.

The Mechanical Powers, are the Balance, Lever, Wheel,

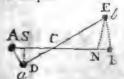
Pully, Wedge, and Skrew.

They may, however, be all reduced to one, viz. the Lever.

The Principle whereon they depend, is the same in all, and

may be conceived from what follows,

The Momentum, Impetus, or Quantity of Motion of any Body, is the Factum of its Velocity, (or the Space it moves in a given Time,) multiplied into its Mass. Hence it follows, that two unequal Bodies will have equal Moments, if the Lines they describe be in a reciprocal Ratio of their Masses.—Thus, if two Bodies, sastened to the Extremities of a Balance or Lever, be in a reciprocal Ratio of their Distances from the Point; when they move, the Lines they describe will be in a reciprocal Ratio of their Masses. For Example.



If the Body A be triple the Body B, and each of them be fixed to the Extremities of a Lever AB, whose Fulcrum, or fixed Point is C, as that the Distance of BC be triple the Distance CA; the Lever cannot be inclined on

either Side, but the Space B E, passed over by the less Body, will be triple the Space A D, passed over by the great one.

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o that their Motions or Moments will be equal, and the two

Hence that noble Challenge of Archimedes, datis viribus, atum pondus movere; for as the Distance CB may be inreased infinitely, the Power or Moment of A may be increased infinitely.—So that the Whole of Mechanics is reduced to the

Mowing Problem.

Any Body, as A, with its Velocity C, and also any other lody, as B, being given; to find the Velocity necessary to make the Moment, or Quantity of Motion in B, equal to the Moment of 1, the given Body.—Here, fince the Moment of any Body is qual to the Rectangle under the Velocity, and the Quantity of latter; as BAC are proportional to a fourth Term, which will e c, the Celerity proper to B, to make its Moment equal to 1 at of A. Wherefore in any Machine or Engine, if the elocity of the Power be made to the Velocity of the Weight, exiprocally as the Weight is to the Power; such Power will lways sustain, or if the Power be a little increased, move the Veight.

Let, for Instance, AB be a Lever, whose Fulcrum is at C, and let it be moved into the Position a C b.—Here, the Veloty of any Point in the Lever, is as the Distance from the lenter. For let the Point A describe the Arch A a, and the oint B the Arch B b; then these Arches will be the Spaces escribed by the two Motions; but since the Motions are both rade in the same Time, the Spaces will be as the Velocities. Ut it is plain, the Arches A a and B b will be to one another, their Radii AC and AB, because the Sectors AC a, and Cb, are similar: wherefore the Velocities of the Points A

nd B, are the Distances from the Center C.

Now, if any Powers be applied to the Ends of the Lever and B, in order to raise its Arms up and down; their Force ill be expounded by the Perpendiculars Sa, and bN; which sing as the right Sines of the former Arches, b B and a A, ill be to one another also as the Radii AC and CB; herefore the Velocities of the Powers, are also as their fiftances from the Center. And fince the Moment of any ody is as its Weight, or gravitating Force, and its Velocity mjunctly; if different Powers or Weights be applied to the ever, their Moments will always be as the Weights and the liftances from the Center conjunctly. - Wherefore, if to the ever, there be two Powers or Weights applied reciprocally roportional to their Distances from the Center, their Moents will be equal; and if they act contrarily, as in the ase of a Stilliard, the Lever will remain in an horizontal Polition,

Position, or the Balance will be in æquilibrio.—And thus it is easy to conceive how the Weight of one Pound may be made

to equi-balance a thousand, &c.

Hence also it is plain, that the Force of the Power is not at all increased by Engines; only the Velocity of the Weight in either lifting or drawing, is so diminished by the Application of the Instrument, as that the Moment of the Weight is not greater than the Force of the Power.—Thus, for Instance; if any Force can raise a Pound Weight with a given Velocity, it is impossible for any Engine to effect, that the same Power shall raise two Pound Weight, with the same Velocity: But by an Engine it may be made to raise two Pound Weight, with half the Velocity; or 10000 times the Weight with reduce of the former Velocity.

ARCHITECTURE may be defined the Art of Building, or of erecting Edifices, proper either for Habitation, or Defence.

Architecture is usually divided, with respect to its Objects.

into three Branches, Civil, Military, and Naval.

Civil Architecture, (which is the only Part we shall treat of in this Place) called also absolutely and by way of eminence Architecture, is the Art of contriving and executing commodious Buildings for the Uses of civil Life, as Houses, Temples, Theatres, Halls, Bridges, Colleges, Portico's, &c.

Architecture is scarce inserior to any of the Arts in point of Antiquity.—Nature and Necessity taught the first Inhabitants of the Earth to build themselves Huts, Tents, and Cottages; from which, in course of Time, they gradually advanced to more regular and stately Habitations, with Variety of Ornaments,

Proportions, &c.

In the common Account, Architecture should be almost wholly of Grecian Original: three of the regular Orders or Manners of Building, are denominated from them, viz. Corinthian, Ionic, and Doric: and scarce a Part, a fingle Member, or Moulding, but comes to us with a Greek Name.

Civil Architecture may be diffinguished, with regard to the feveral Periods or States thereof, into Antique, Ancient, Gothie,

Modern, &c.

Another Division of civil Architecture, arises from the different Proportions which the different Kinds of Buildings rendered necessary, that we might have some proper for every Purpose, according to the Bulk, Strength, Delicacy, Richness, or Simplicity required.

Hence arose five Orders or Manners of Building, all invented by the Ancients at different Times, and on different Occasions,

viz. Tufcan, Doric, Ionic, Corinthian, and Composite.

What forms an Order, is the Column with its Base and Capital; surmounted by an Entablature, consisting of Archi-

trave, Frieze, and Cornice; and fuffained by a Pedeffal. All

which are delineated upon the annexed Plate.

The Definitions Vitruvius, Barbars, Scamezzi, &c. give of the Orders, are so obscure, that it were in vain to repeat them: without dwelling, therefore, on the Definition of a Word, which Custom has established, it is sufficient to observe, that there are sive Orders of Columns; three whereof are Greek, viz. the Doric, Ionic, and Gerinthian; and two Italic,

wiz. the Tufcan and Composite.

The three Greek Orders represent the three different Manners of Buildings, viz. the folid, delicate, and middling; the two Italic ones are imperfect Productions thereof. The little regard the Romans had for these last, appears hence, that we do not meet with one Instance in the Antique, where they are intermixed. That Abuse the Moderns have introduced by the mixture of Greek and Latin Orders, Daviler observes, arises from their want of Resection on the Use made thereof by the Ancients.

The Origin of Orders is almost as ancient as human Society. The Rigour of the Seasons first led Men to make little Cabins, to retire into; at first, half under Ground, and the half above covered with Stubble: at length, growing more expert, they planted Trunks of Trees an-end, laying others across, to

fustain the Covering.

Hence they took the Hint of a more regular Architecture; for the Trunks of Trees, upright, represent Columns: the Girts, or Bands, which served to keep the Trunks from bursting, expressed Bases and Capitals; and the Summers laid across, gave the Hint of Entablatures; as the Coverings, ending in Points, did of Pedements. This is Vitruvius's Hypothesis; which we find very well illustrated by M. Blondel.

Others take it, that Columns took their rife from Pyramids, which the Ancients erected over their Tombs; and that the Urns, wherein they inclosed the Ashes of the Dead, represented the Capitals, whose Abacus was a Brick, laid thereon to cover the Urns: but Vitruvius's Account appears the more

natural.

At length, the Greeks regulated the Height of their Columns on the Foot of the Proportions of the human Bodys the Doric represented a Man of a strong, robust Makes the Innic that of a Woman; and the Corinthian that of a Girl: Their Bases and Capitals were their Head-dress, that Shoes, &c.

These Orders took their Names from the People, among whom they were invented: Scamozzi uses significative Terms

to expects their Character; when he calls the Tuscan, the girancie; the Doric, the Herculean; the Ionic, the matronal; the

the, the beroic; and the Corinthian, the virginal.

To give a general Idea of the Orders; it must be observed, that the whole of each Order is composed of two Parts at the least, viz. the Column and Entablature; and of four Parts at the most, when there is a Pedestal under the Column, and Acroter, or little Pedestal, atop of the Entablature: that the Column has three Parts, viz. the Base, the Shaft, and the Capital; the Entablature has three likewise, viz. the Architrave, the Frieze, and Cornice: which Parts are all different in the feveral Orders.

Tuscan Order is the first, most simple, and solid: its Co-farm is seven Diameters high; and its Capital, Base, and Entablature, have but few Mouldings, or Ornaments. See the

Plate Fig. 1.

Deric Order is the second, and the most agreeable to Nature. It has no Ornament on its Base, or in its Capital. Its Height is eight Diameters. Its Frieze is divided by Triglyphs and Metopes. See the Plate Fig. 2.

Ionic Order is the third; and a kind of mean Proportional between the folid, and delicate Manner. Its Capital igadorned with Volutes, and its Cornicc with Denticles. See the Plate Fig. 3.

Mich. Angelo, contrary to all other Authors, gives the Ionic

s fingle Row of Leaves at the Bottom of the Capital.

Cerinthian Order, invited by Callimachus, is the fourth, the richest, and most delicate. Its Capital is adorned with two Rows of Leaves, and eight Volutes, which sustain the Abacus. Its Column is ten Diameters high; and its Cornice has Mo-

dillions. See the Plate Fig. 4.

Composite Order, the fifth and last, (though Scamozzi and Le Clerc make it the fourth) is so called, because its Capital is composed out of those of the other Orders; having the two Rows of Leaves of the Corinthian, and the Volutes of the It is also called the Roman, because invented among hat People. Its Column is ten Diameters high; and its Cornice has Denticles, or simple Modillions. See the Plate ļie. 5.

There are several Arts subservient to Architecture, as Cartentry, Masonry, Paving, Joinery, Smithery, Glaziery, Plum-

Plastering, Gilding, Painting, &c.

In Building there are three Things chiefly in View, viz.

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Sir Henry Wotten confiders the whole Subject under two Had win. the Seat or Situation, and the Work or Structure.

For the Situation of a Building, either that the Whole is be confidered, or that of its Parts.——As to the first, regard is to be had to the Quality, Temperature, and Salubrity of the Air; the Conveniency of Water, Fuel, Carriage, &c. and the

Agreeableness of the Prospect.

For the fecond, the chief Rooms, Studies, Libraries, &c. are to lie towards the East: Offices that require Heat, as Kitchem, Distillatories, Brew-houses, &c. to the South: those that require a fresh cool Air, as Cellars, Pantries, Granaries, &c. to the North: as also Galleries for Painting, Museums, &c. which require a steady Light. — He adds, that the ancient Greeks and Romans generally situated the Front of their Houses to the South; but that modern Italians vary from this Rule.—Indeed, in this Matter, Regard must be still had to the Country; each being obliged to provide against its respective Inconveniencies: so that a good Parlour in Egypt, might make a good Cellar in England.—The Situation being fixed on, the next thing to be considered is the

Work or Structure of the BUILDING, under which come first the principal Parts, then the Accessories, or Ornaments.—
To the Principals, belong first, the Materials; then the Form,

or Disposition.

The Materials of a Building, are either Stone, as Marble, Free-stone, Brick for the Walls, &c. or Wood, as Firs, Cypress, Cedar, for Posts and Pillars of upright Use; Oak for Beams, Summers, and for Joining and Connection.

For the Form or Disposition of a BUILDING, it must either be simple or mixed. — The simple Forms are either circular or angular: and the circular ones are either compleat, as july

Spheres; or deficient, as Ovals.

The circular Form is very commodious, of the greatest Capacity of any; strong, durable beyond the rest, and very besatiful; but then it is found of all others the most chargeable; much Room is lost in the Bending of the Walls, when it come to be divided; besides an ill Distribution of Light, except from the Center of the Roof: on these Considerations it was that the Ancients only used the circular Form in Temples and Amphitheatres, which needed no Compartition.—Oval Formathave the same Inconveniencies, without the same Conveniencies; being of less Capacity.

For angular Figures, Sir Henry Watton observes, building neither loves many, nor few Angles: the Triangle v. gr. is condemned above all others, in wanting Capital and Firmness; as also, because irresolvable into any others.

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There in the inward Partitions, besides its own.—For the five, six, seven, or more Angles, they are sitter for sections than civil Buildings. There is, indeed, a cele-Building of Vignola, at Caprarola, in Form of a Pen; but the Architect had prodigious Difficulties to grapple in disposing the Lights, and saving the Vacuities. Such ings then, seem rather for Curiosity than Conveniency: or this Reason, Rectangles are pitched on, as being a am between the two Extremes. But again, whether the ngle is to be just a Square or an Oblong, is disputed; serry Wotton prefers the latter, provided the Length do seceed the Breadth by above one third.

xed Figures, partly circular and partly angular, may be d of from the Rules of the simple ones; only they have articular Defect, that they offend against Uniformity. In-Uniformity and Variety may seem to be opposite to each: But Sir H. Wotton observes, they may be reconciled; or an Instance, mentions the Structure of the human Body: both meet.—Thus much for the first grand Division, the Whole of a Building.

e Parts of a Building, Baptista Alberti comprises under Heads, viz. the Foundation, Walls, Apertures, Compar, and Cover.

r the Foundation, to examine its Firmness, Vitruvius s the Ground to be dug up; an apparent Solidity not to rusted to, unless the whole Mould cut through be found : he does not indeed limit the Depth of the Digging; idio limits it to a fixth Part of the Height of the Building: Sir Henry Wotton calls the natural Foundation, whereon fland the Substruction, or Ground-work, to support the is, which he calls the artificial Foundation: this then is e the Level; its lowest Ledge, or Row, of Stone only, laid with Mortar, and the broader the better; at the twice as broad as the Wall: lastly, some add, that the rials below should be laid just as they grow in the Quarry; pposing them to have the greatest Strength in their natural are. De Lorme enforces this, by observing, that the breakor yielding of a Stone in this Part, but the Breadth of the of a Knife, will make a Cleft of above half a Foot in the ic above.—For Pallification, or piling the Ground-plot, uch commended by Vitruvius, we say nothing; that being ired only in a moist marshy Ground, which should never noten: nor perhaps are there any Instances of this Kind, e it was not Necessity that drove them to it. ol. I. For

For the Walls, they are either entire and continued, or intermitted; and the Intermissions are either Columns or Pilasters.—Entire, or continued Walls, are variously distinguished; by some, according to the Quality of the Materials, as they are either Stone, Brick, &c. others only consider the Position of the Materials; as when Brick, or square Stones, are laid in their Lengths, with Sides and Heads together, or the Points

conjoined, like a Network, &c.

The great Laws of Muring, are, that the Walls stand perpendicular to the Ground-work; the right Angle being the Cause of all Stability: that the massiest and heaviest Materials be lowest, as fitter to bear than to be born; that the Work diminish in Thickness, as it rises; both for Ease of Weight and Expence: that certain Courses, or Ledges, of more Strength than the rest, be interlaid, like Bones, to sustain the Fabric from total Ruin, if the under Parts chance to decay: and lastly, that the Angles be firmly bound; these being the News of the whole Fabric, and commonly fortisted, by the Italiani, on each Side the Corners, even in Brick Buildings, with squared Stones; which add both Beauty and Strength.

The Intermissions, as before observed, are either Columns or Pilasters: whereof there are five Orders, viz. Tuskan, Dorie, Ionic, Corinthian, Composite; each of which is delineated on the

Plate annexed.

Columns and Pilasters are frequently, both for Beauty and

Majesty, formed archwise.

For the Apertures, they are either Doors, Windows. Staircases, Chimneys, or Conduits for the Suillage, &c. Only with regard to the last, it may be observed, that Art should imite Nature in these ignoble Conveyances, and separate them from Sight, where a running Water is wanting, into the most remote, lowest and thickest Part of the Foundation; with secret Vents, passing up through the Walls like Tunnels to the open Air; which the Italians all commend for the Discharge of noisome Vapours.

For the Compartition, or Distribution of the Ground-plet into Apartments, Se. Sir H. Watton lays down these Prefiminaries; that the Architect never fix his Fancy on a Paper-draught, how exactly soever set off in Perspective; much less on a mere Plan, without a Model, or Type of the whole Structure, and every Pare thereof, in Pastboard or Wood; that this Model be as plain and unadorned as possible, to prevent the Eye's being imposed on; and that the bigger this Model, the

better.

In the Compartition itself, there are two general Views, wiz. the Gracefulness, and Usefulness of the Distribution, for Rooms of Office and Entertainment; as far as the Capacity thereof, and the Nature of the Country will allow.—The Gracefulness will consist in a double Analogy, or Correspondstacy; first, between the Parts and the Whole, whereby a large Fabric should have large Partitions, Entrances, Doors, Columns, and in brief, all the Members large: the second between the Parts themselves, with regard to Length, Breadth, and Height. The Ancients determined the Length of their Rooms, that they were to be Oblongs, by double their Breadth; and the Height by half their Breadth and Length added together. When the Room was to be precifely square, they made the Height half as much more as the Breadth; which Rules, the Moderns take occasion to dispense with; sometimes squaring the Breadth, and making the Diagonal thereof the Measure of the Height; and fometimes more. This Deviating from the Rules

of the Ancients, is ascribed to M. Angelo.

The second Consideration in the Compartition, is the Usefulwhich consists in the having a sufficient Number of Rooms of all kinds, with their proper Communications, and without Distraction. Here the chief Distinculty will lie in the Lights and Stair-Cases: the Ancients were pretty easy on both those Heads, having generally two cloistered open Courts, one for the Womens Side, the other for the Men: thus the Reception of Light into the Body of the Building was casy; which among us must be supplied, either by the open Form of the Building, or graceful Refuges or Breaks, by terraffing a Story in danger of Parkness, and by Abajours, or Sky-lights.—For casting the tair-cases, it may be observed, that the Italians frequently di-Bribute the Kitchen, Bake-house, Buttery, &c. under Ground, pext above the Foundation, and fometimes level with the Floor the Cellar; raising the first Ascent into the House fifteen Feet or more: which, befide the removing Annoyances out the Sight, and gaining fo much room above, does by elevaing the Front, add a Majesty to the Whole. Indeed, Sir H. fatton observes, that in England the natural Hospitality thereof all not allow the Buttery to be so far out of Sight; besides, that a more luminous Kitchen, and a shorter Distance between that and the Dining-room are required, than the Compartition

In the Distribution of Lodging-rooms, it is a popular and trient Fault, especially among the Italians, to cast the Pardions so, as when the Doors are all open, a Man may see 0 2 through

through the whole House; grounded on the Ambition of shewing a Stranger all the Furniture at once: an intolerable Hariship on all the Chambers except the inmost, where none carrive but through all the rest, unless the Walls be extreme thick for secret Passages: nor will this serve the Turn, without at least three Doors to each Chamber; a thing inexcusable, except in hot Countries: besides it being a Weakening to the Bailding, and the Necessity it occasions of making as many common great Rooms as there are Stories, which devours a great deal of room, better employed in places of Retreat; and must likewise be dark, as running through the Middle of the House.

In the Compartition, the Architect will have occasion for frequent Shifts; through which his own Sagacity, more than any Rules, must conduct him. Thus he will be frequently put to struggle with Scarcity of Ground; sometimes to damn one Room for the Benefit of the rest, as to hide a Buttery under a Stair-case, &c. at other times, to make those the most beautiful which are most in Sight: and to leave the rest, like a Painter, in the Shadow, &c.

For the Covering of the Building; this is the last in the Execution, but the first in the Intention; for who would build, but to shelter? In the Covering, or Roof, there are two Extreme to be avoided, the making it too heavy or too light: the first will press too much on the Underwork; the latter has a more fecret Inconvenience; for the Cover is not only a bare Defence, but a Band or Ligature to the whole Building; and there required a reasonable Weight. Indeed, of the two Extremes, a Home Top-heavy is the worst. Care is likewise to be taken, Pressure be equal on each Side; and Palladio wishes, that whole Burden might not be laid on the outward Walls, that the inner likewise bear their Share .- The Italians are very curious in the Proportion and Gracefulness of the Pent or Sopeness of the Roof; dividing the whole Breadth into nine Party whereof two serve for the Height of the highest Top or Right from the lowest: but in this Point, Regard must be had to the Quality of the Region; for, as Palladio infinuates, those Chi mates which fear the falling of much Snow, ought to have more inclining Pentices than others.

Thus much for the principal or effential Part of a Building—For the Accessories, or Ornaments, they are fetched from Painting and Sculpture. The chief Things to be regarded the first, are, that no Room have too much, which will of casion a Surfeit; except in Galleries, or the like:

xes be placed where there are the fewest Lights: Rooms weral Windows are Enemies to Painters, nor can any s be seen in Persection, unless illumined, like Nature, fingle Light: that in the Disposition Regard be had to ture of the Painter in working, which is the most nair the Posture of the Spectator; and that they be accomd to the Intentions of the Room they are used in. For re, it must be observed, that it be not too abundant; ly at the first Approach of a Building, or at the Entrance, 1 Doric Ornament is much preferable to a Corinthian one: : Niches, if they contain Figures of white Stone, be not d in their Concavity too black, but rather dusky; the being displeased with too sudden Departures from one ie to another. That fine Sculptures have the Advantage rness, and coarser of Distance; and that in placing of i aloft, they be reclined a little forwards: because, the Ray extended to the Head of the Figure, is longer than sching to its Fect, which will of Necessity make that Part further off; so that to reduce it to an erect Posture, it e made to stoop a little forwards. M. Le Clerc, however. t allow of this Resupination, but will have every Part ust Perpendicular.

to the Stone and Stucco, used in Buildings, which are id white at first, and are commonly supposed to be dised with the Air, Smoke, &c. the true Cause thereof is, sey become covered with a minute Species of Plants, alter their Colour. A fort of Lichens yellowish, brower greenish, which commonly grow on the Barks of do grow also on Stones, Mortar, Plaister, and even on es of Isouses, being propagated by little light Seeds disby the Wind, Rain, &c. The best Preservative known,

al of Lime.

judge of a Building, Sir H. Wotton lays down the fol-Rules.—That before fixing any Judgment, a Person remed of its Age; since, if apparent Decays be found to the Proportion of Time, it may be concluded, with-ther Inquisition, either that the Situation is naught, or iterials or Workmanship too slight.—If it be found to Years well, let him run back, from the Ornaments and which strike the Eye first, to the more essential Memill he be able to form a Conclusion, that the Work is is dious, firm, and delightful; the three Conditions, in Building, laid down at first, and agreed on by all Au-This, our Author esteems the most scientifical way of

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Vasseri proposes another; vix. by passing a running Ramination over the whole Edifice, compared to the Structure of well-made Man: as whether the Walls stand upright upon a clean Footing and Foundation; whether the Building be of a beautiful Stature; whether, for the Breadth, it appear well burnished; whether the principal Entrance be on the middle Lint of the Front, or Face, like our Mouths; the Windows, as our Eyes, set in equal Number and Distance on both Sides; the Of-

fices like the Veins, usefully distributed, &c.

Vitruvius gives a third Method of judging: summing up the whole Art under these six Heads: Ordination, or settling the Model and Scale of the Work; Disposition, the just Expression of the Design thereof; (which two Sir H. Wetten thinks ! might have spared, as belonging rather to the Artificer than the Censurer:) Eurythmy, the agreeable Harmony between the Length, Breadth and Height of the several Rooms, &c. &. metry, or the Agreement between the Parts and the Whole; Decor, the due Relation between the Building and the Inhabitant, whence Palladio concludes, the principal Entrance out never to be limited by any Rule, but the Dignity and General fity of the Master. And lastly, Distribution, the useful casting of the several Rooms, for Office, Entertainment, or Pleasure These hast four are ever to be run over, ere a man may pa any determinate Censure: and these alone, Sir Henry observa are fufficient to condemn or acquit any Building whatever.

Dr. Fuller gives us two or three good Aphorisms in Bullers,—1°. Let not the common Rooms be several, nor the serial Rooms common: i.e. the common Rooms not to be vate or retired, as the Hall, Galleries, &c. which are to open; and the Chambers, &c. to be retired.—2°. A Howard better be too little for a Day, than too big for a Yellouses therefore to be proportioned to ordinary Occasions, extraordinary.—3°. Country-houses must be Substantive, to stand of themselves: not like City Buildings, supported the standard on each Side by their Neighbours.—4°. Let not Front look asquint on a Stranger; but accost him right, his Entrance.—5°. Let the Offices keep their due Different the Mansion-house; those are too samiliar, which of the same pile with it.

The Plan or Projection of an Edifice is commonly laid &

on three several Draughts.

The first is a Plan, which exhibits the Extent, Division and Distribution of the Ground into the various Aparta and other Conveniencies proposed.

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cond represents the Stories, their Heights, and the exactive and Appearances of the whole Building: this is termed, by Surveyors, the Design or Elevation.

e third is commonly diffinguished by the Section, and

the internal Parts of the Fabric.

om these three distinct Plans the Surveyor forms a Compuof the Charge of the whole Erection, and also of the

wherein the same may be compleated.

regard to civil Architecture, it is certain, that those Nawhich have no stately and magnificent Buildings, in geare always poor and uncivilized. As Land Structures idifices of every kind give Employment to prodigious pers of People, whatever has a Tendency to improve in rt of Building, should be duly encouraged by those whose nes and Rank will admit of it; and that not only for the ior and Magnificence of the State, but for the Promoof useful Arts, as well as the Benefit of their landed s: for this Art gives birth to the immense Consumption mber, Bricks, Stone and Mortar, Iron-work, &c. all tend to the private Advantage of the landed Interest; as likewise the well-furnishing of those sumptuous Edifices they are erected; which also gives daily Bread to an im-Number of other Mechanics and Artificers. These me-: Arts give Strength, Wealth, and Grandeur to a Nation, adually train up and support a constant Race of practical i, and Manufacturers, who thereby become the great Inents of bringing Treasures into the State, by the Vent of tive Commodities to foreign Nations.

r is it politic for the Great and Opulent to contemn Mesin general, as too many, perhaps, are wont to do. It I, that when the great Heraclitus's Scholars found him in hanic's Shop, into which they were ashamed to enter, he hem, That the Gods were as conversant in such Places as intimating, that a divine Power and Wisdom might be ied in such common Arts, although they mistakenly over-

and despised them.

know how the late Czar Peter esteemed and caressed ters and Mechanics of every Rank and Degree, and bene extraordinary Essess of such Policy in that wise Prince! by those Measures, has converted a Generation of Savages Inn.

ere are fome who are too great Encouragers of Buildings, nining themselves, as well as the Workmen they employ, if ying that Itch beyond the Limits of their Fortunes. In uence of this boundless Profusion, we too drequently see,

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before the Expiration of half a Century, very stately and magnificent Seats, which have cost immense Sums, run to Decay so want of being inhabited, or, according to a modern Custom levelled to the Ground for Sale by Piecemeal: thus Structure that have cost some hundred thousand Pounds Sterling, have no produced one twentieth part of the prime Cost to the Executors So that with the Money sunk in the Erection of those support Edifices, and the Expence which attends the Support of them will Splendor equal to their Stateliness, some great Families have been reduced to great Indignity. This is a melancholy Confederation to the Proprietor, though this Practice gives Employment to Workmen, to whom it sometimes has prov'd ruinous as well as to Families of such who have had an ungovernable Taste for Building.



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An Island is a Portion of Land surrounded by Water, as Great Britain is.

Peninsula. A Peninsula is a Portion of the Earth surrounded by Water, except on one Part where it is joined to some other Land by a narrow Neck or Ishmus. As Africa is joined to Asia by the Ishmus of Suez, and the Morea is joined to Asia by the Ishmus of Corinth.

An Isthmus is that Neck of Land which joins two Countries together, as the Isthmus of Darien joins North and South America, and the Isthmus of Corinth,

Achaia and the Morea.

A Promontory or Cape is a Point of Land which extends itself into the Sea, as the Cape of Good-Hope in Africa, and Cape Comorin in the East-Indies.

S. How are the Waters divided?

M. The Waters are divided into Oceans, Seas, Straits, Bays

or Gulphs, Lakes and Rivers.

Oceans are the vast Seas which divide one Part of the Earth from another, as the Atlantic Ocean which divides Europe and Africa from America, and the Pacific Ocean or South-Sea, which divides America from Asia.

Seas. Seas are less Bodies of Water which divide one Country from another, as the Mediterranean which divides Europe from Africa, and the Battic which divides Sweden from Germany.

BayorGulph.

A Bay or Gulph, is a Sea encompassed with Land, except one Part whereby Ships enter it, as the Gulph of Mexico in America, and the Gulph of Finland in the Baltic. And the lesser Bays are frequently called Sound.

Creeks or Sounds, as Plymouth-Sound.

Strait.

A Strait is a narrow Passage into some Sea, as the Strait of Gibraltar, and this is also sometimes called a Sound, as the Strait by which we enter the Bahic Sea is.

Lake. A Lake is properly a great Water furrounded by Land, which has no visible Communication with any Sea, as the Caspian Sea in Asia; but many other Waters which have a Communication with the Sea, are denominated Lakes also; as the Onega Lake in Russia, and the Lake of Nicaragua in America.

A River is a Stream issuing from some Fountain, which after it has run a considerable Course, discharges itself usually in some Sea, as the Dannie, which rising in the Mountains of the Alps, after it has run a Course of many hundred Miles from West to East, thro great Part

of Germany, Hungary, and Turkey, discharges itself into the Euxine Sea by several Channels.

S. Of what Dimensions is the terrestrial Globe?

M. The Circumference of the terrestrial Globe is 360 Degrees, every Degree being 60 Geographical Miles; so that the whole Circuit is 21600 Globe. Such Miles, and if the Diameter was a third Part of the Circumference, the Diameter would be 7200 Miles; but the Diameter is as 7 to 22, which makes it something Diameter. If we reduce the Geographical Miles to English Miles, the Circumference of the Earth will be about 24000 Miles, and the Diameter 8000.

S. What is the Earth founded upon?

M. The terrestrial Globe rests upon nothing, but appears equally furrounded by the Heavens on every Side; for the better understanding whereof, it will be necessary to observe the feveral imaginary Circles described on the ar-Circles of the tificial Globe, Plate 2. viz. 1. The Equator and Globe. the Circles parallel to it. 2. The first Meridian and the rest of the meridional Lines. 3. The Zodiac, which includes the Ecliptic. 4. The Horizon. 5. The two Tropics. 6. The Artic and Antartic Circles. It is supposed also, that a Line passes thro' the Center of the Globe, called its Axis, round which it moves every 24 Hours, the Ends of which Axis are called the Poles of the Earth, that in the North called the Artic or North Pole, from a Star in the Heavens opposite to it, which forms part of the Constellation called the little Bear, and that in the South called the Antartic or South Pole, as diametrically opposite to the other.

S. Of what Use is that Circle denominated the Equa-

tor?

M. By the Equator the Globe is divided into Equator. two equal Parts or Hemispheres, and on this Circle are marked the Degrees of Longitude, from the first Meridian, either East or West. The Parallel Circles are so called from their running parallel to the Equator, of which there are nine in number, inclusive between the Equator and either Pole, sen Degrees distant from each other, every Degree of Latitude being 60 Geographical Miles, and every ten Degrees 600 such Miles. Consequently, it is 5400 Miles from the Equator to either Pole, which is one quarter of the Circumserence of the Globe.

S, Of what Use is the first Meridian?

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M. The first Meridian is represented by the brazen Circle in which the Globe moves, dividing it into the Eastern and Western Hemispheres, on which Circle are marked the Degrees of Latitude, which are counted Northward from the Equator to the North Pole, and Southward from the

Equator to the South Pole.

Where the meridional Lines are 24 in Number, they are 15 Degrees or one Hour afunder; those who live under the meridian Line on the right Hand, that is, to the Eastward of the first Meridian, have the Sun one Hour before us; and those who live under the meridional Line on the left Hand, that is, West of us, have the Sun an Hour after us; and this shews what is meant by Eastern and Western Longitude. Longitude.

And as Longitude is nothing more than the Distance any Place is East or West of the first Meri-

dian, so Latitude is the Distance a Place is from the Equator North or South. If it be North of the Equator, it is called North Latitude, and if it be South of the Equator, it is called South Latitude.

S. Where is the first Meridian usually placed?

M. The first Meridian in the old Maps was placed either at Teneriff, one of the Canary Isles, 17 Degrees West of London, or at Ferro, another of the Canary Isles, 19 Degrees West of London. But every Nation almost at this Day places the first Meridian at their respective capital Cities in their several Maps. In Moll's, which are the correcteft English Maps we have, London is made the first Meridian at one End of the Map, and Ferro at the other; Ferro being 19 Degrees West of London, as has been observed already. And in these Maps the upper End is always the North, the lower End the South; the right Hand East, and the left Hand West, the Degrees of Longitude being marked at the Top and Bottom of each Map, and the Degreet of Latitude on the Sides of the Map.

S. What is meant by the Zodiac?

M. The Zodiac is that Circle which cuts the Zodiac. Equator obliquely, and is divided into twelve Signs, thro' which the Sun feems to pass within the Space of 12 Months, each Sign containing 30 Degrees of Longitude.

The Ecliptic is a Line passing thro' the middle of the Zodiac, and shews the Sun's or rather the Earth's Path or Orbit, in which

it moves annually.

S. Why do you say the Earth's Orbit? Is it not the Sun that moves?

M. No, but Geographers speak according to Appearances, the Appearance is the same if the Earth moves from West to East, as if the Sun moved from East to West.

S. Which of the Circles is denominated the Horizon?

M. The Horizon is the broad Circle in which the Globe stands, dividing it into the upper and lower Hemispheres. The Place where any one stands, is the Center of this Horizon and Hemisphere; the sensible Horizon seems to touch the Surface of the Earth, and is the utmost Limits of our Sight, upon an extensive Plain. The rational Horizon is supposed parallel to this, and to be extended to the Heavens.

The Poles of our Horizon are two imaginary Zenith, Na-Points in the Heavens, called the Zenith and Nadir; the Zenith being the vertical Point directly over our Heads, and the Nadir that Point of the Heavens under our Feet, diametrically opposite to the Zenith.

S. Are any Part of the Heavens under us?

M. As the Earth turns round upon its own Axis every 24. Hours, which makes Day and Night, that Part of the Heavens which was over our Heads at 12 at Noon, must of course be under our Feet at 12 at Night; but speaking properly, no Part of the Earth can be said to be uppermost or lowermost. All the Inhabitants of the Earth seem to have the Earth under their Feet, and the Heavens over their Heads, and Ships sail with their Bottoms opposite to each other.

S. Of what Use are the Circles denominated Tropics?

M. The Tropics shew how far the Sun or rather the Earth proceeds North or South of the Tropics.

Equator every Year. The Tropic of Cancer surrounds the Globe 23½ Degrees North of the Equator, and the Tropic of Capricorn 23½ South of the Equator.

S. Where are the polar Circles placed?

M. The polar Circles are drawn 23½ Degrees distant from each Pole, and 66½ distant from the Circles. Equator.

8. What are those Divisions of the Earth called Zones?

M. The Earth is divided into five Zones, viz.

The torrid Zone, the two frigid Zones, and the

two temperate Zones; and are denominated Zones, because
they encompass the Earth like a Girdle.

The torrid Zone lies between the two Tropics, and is so denominated from the excessive Heat of

the Climate, the Sun passing over it twice every Year.

The

The two frigid Zones lie within the polar Circles, and are so called from the excessive Cold within those Circles.

The Northern temperate Zone lies between the Tropic of Cancer, and the Artic Circle, and the Southern temperate Zone between the Tropic of Capricorn and the Antartic Circle.

S. What are we to understand by the Elevation of the

Pole?

M. The Elevation of the Pole is the Height of the Pole above the Horizon, and is always equal to the Latitude of any Place, as the South of England lies in 50 Degrees of North Latitude, so the North Pole must of course be elevated 50 Degrees above the Horizon there, for which Reason the Latitude of a Place, and the Elevation of the Pole, are used promiscuously to express the same thing.

S. Please to explain this by some Instances.

M. When you rectify the Globe, and bring any Place to the Zenith, the Horizon must of course be 90 Degrees distant from that Place, either North or South. Suppose then the given Place lie in 50 Degrees of North Latitude, consequently the given Place must be 40 Degrees distant from the North Pole, and the Pole must be 50 Degrees above the Horizon of that Place, to make up the 90 Degrees on that Side. On the other hand, as the given Place lies 50 Degrees North of the Equator, your Horizon must extend to 40 Degrees of Southern Latitude, to make up the Complement of 90 Degrees on that Side. To explain this farther, suppose you bring Petersburgh to the Zerith, which lies in 60 Degrees North Latitude, and consequently is within 30 Degrees of the Pole, then there must be 60 Degrees between the Pole and the Horizon to make up the Complement of 90 Degrees. And on the other hand, the Horizon of Petersburgh will extend but to 30 Degrees of Southern Latitude, that making up the Complement of 90 Degrees on that Side, for there will always be 90 Degrees between the Zenith and Horizon on every Side to form the Hemisphere.

S. Of what Use is the Hour Circle on the Globe?

M. The brazen horary Circle fixed on every

Hour Circle. Globe with an Index, shews how many Hours

and consequently how many Degrees any Place is East of

West of another Place; for as every 15 Degrees

me Hinr

East or West is an Hour, so every Hour is the

Degrees.

Ths

The Quadrant of Altitude is a pliant brass Place divided into 90 Degrees, one fourth of the Circumference of the Globe, by which the Diftances of Places may be found, and many useful Problems re-

Quadrant of Altitude.

folved. S. How are the Inhabitants of the Earth distinguished in regard to their respective Situations?

M. They are denominated either Perizeci, Anteci, or An-

tipodes.

The Periæci are situate under the same Paral-Perieci. lel, but opposite Meridians: It is Midnight with one when it is Noon with the other, but the Length of their Days and their Scasons are the same; these are found by the turning the horary Index 12 Hours, or turning the Globe half

The Antæci are situate under the same Meridian, but opposite Parallels; these have the Seasons opposite to ours, and the same Length of Days; but when their Days are longest, ours are shortest. These are found by numbering as many Degrees on the opposite Side of the Equator as we are on this.

The Antipodes lie under opposite Meridians, and Antipodes. opposite Parallels; these have different Seasons, and their Noon-day is our Midnight, and their longest Day our **Thortest:** These are found by turning the horary Index 12 Hours from the given Place, or turning the Globe half round, and then counting as many Degrees on the opposite Side of the Equator as the given Place is on this.

S. Are they distinguished by any other Circumstances?

M. The Inhabitants of the Earth are distinguish-Different ed by their different Shadows at Noon-day, and are Shadows. denominated either Amphiscii, Ascii, Heteroscii, or Periscii.

The Amphiscii inhabit the Torrid Zone, and Ampbifcii. have their Noon-day Shadows both North and South: When the Sun is South of them, then their Shadows are North, and when the Sun is North of them their Shadows are South; these are also called Ascii, because the Sun Afcii. is vertical twice every Year at Noon-day, and then they have no Shadow.

The Heteroscii, who inhabit the Temperate Heteroscii. Zones, have their Shadows always one Way at

Moon-day. In the Northern temperate Zone their Shadows talways North; and in the Southern temperate Zone, their adows are aways South at Noon-day.

The

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The Periscii inhabit within the polar Circles and have their Shadows every Way, the Sun lating above their Horizon all the 24 Hours, several Months in the Year, viz. when it is on the same Side of the Equator they were of; and if there were any Inhabitants at either of the Poles, they would have but one Day of 6 Months, and one Night of the same Length.

. S. What are we to understand by Climates?

M. Climates are Spaces on the Surface of the Globe, bounded by imaginary Circles parallel to the Equator, so broad that the Length of the Day in one exceeds that of another half an Hour, of which there are 60 in Number, viz. 24 from the Equator to each of the Polar Circles, and 6 from either of the Polar Circles to the respective Poles, between which last, there is a Difference of an entire Month; the Sun appearing in the first one Month above the Horizon without setting, in the second two Months, and so on to the Pole, where there is a Day of 6 Months, and the Nights proportionable, when the Sun is on the opposite Side of the Equator.

S. Are these Climates of an equal Breadth?

M. No, those near the Equator are much the broadest; For Example, the first Climate next the Equator is 8 Degrees odd Minutes in Breadth, whereas the 11th Climate is little more than 2 Degrees broad, as may be observed in the following Table.

limates	145	Latit		
16-	Hours.	Minutes.	Degrees.	Min.
eginning	1			Con Cha
e first	\$12	co	00	00
ate at the	(00	00	
tor.	,			
ate	12	30	08	25
	13	00	16	25
	13	30	23	50
	14	00	30	20
	14	30	36	28
	15	00	4I	32
	15	30	45	29
•	16	60	49	0I
	16	30	51	58
-	17	00	54	27
	17	30	56	37
	18	90	58	29 .
	18	30	59	58
	19	00	δí	18
	19	30	62	25
	20	00	63	22
	20	30	64	66
	21 21	00	64	49
	22	30	6 5	21
	22		65 66	47 06
	23	30 00	66	20
	23 23	30	66	28
Т	o 24 Hou	5 0	To 66	
the frigid	Zone the	Dave increa	fe by Months	. 30
B.	A Day	of one Mo	nth in 67	30
	24)	30 30		
		3 Mon	ths in 69 ths in 73	39 20
		4 Mon	ths in 78	20
			ths in 84	00
			ths in 90	00

I. The End of one Climate is the Beginning of the At the first Climate, which begins at the Equator, the just 12 Hours long at the Beginning of the Climate, Hours 30 Minutes at the End of it, viz. in 8 Degrees sutes of Latitude, where the second Climate begins.

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S. I observe that every Degree of Latitude contains 6: graphical Miles, please to inform me how many such M

contained in a Degree of Longitude?

M. Every Degree of Longitude counted on the Equ 60 Geographical Miles, but as the meridion al Lines ap nearer each other as you advance towards either Pole, quently the Number of Miles between those Lines must in Proportion; for instance, a Degree of Longitude in 5 grees of Latitude contains but 37 Miles, tho' it be full 60 upon the Equator, and this will be found by measuris Distances as well as by the following Table, which how many Miles are contained in a Degree of Longituevery Latitude.

A TABLE of the Length of a Degree of Longitude in Latitude.

BAST.	Deg.	Miles.	Min. 1	Deg.	Miles.	Mi
Equator.	. 00	60	CO	26	54	- 1
- 17	1	59	56	27	53	- 2
2.4	2	59	54	28	53	a c v and also de state atte a desire a
	3	59	52	29	52	3
	4	59	50	30	51	1
	5	59	46	31	51	- 3
	6	59	40	32	50	1
	7	59	37	33	50	5
	- 7	59	24	34	49	4
	9	59	10	35	49	4
	10	59	00	36	48	2
	II	58	52	36 37	47	2
	12	58	40	38	47	3
	13	58	28	38	46	1 3
10.00	14	58	12	40	46	C
	15	58	00	41	45	- 1
	16	57	40	42	44	3
	18	57	20	43	43	5
	18	57	04	44	43	q
	19	56 56	44	45	42	2
	20	56	24	46	41	4
WELLOO 25	21	56	00	47	41	4
8-34	22	55	36	47 48	40	- 4
	-23	55	12	49	39	-
	24	54	48	50	38	- 8
	25	54	24	51	37	*



DO GROUNSHAE

	G	E O	GR.	APHY	3	Sec.	197	
	Deg.	Miles.	Min.	1 De	g.	Miles.		
ø.	52	37	00	72	ĭ	18	32	
	53	36	09	73	3	17	32 32 32 32 32 32 32	1
	54	35	26	74	ŀ	16	3 9 •	•
	55 56 57 58 59 60 61	34	24 32 40 48	75	5	15	32	
	56	33 32	`3 2	76)	14	32	
	57	32	40	77	7	13,	3 2	
	58	31	48	78	3	12	32 28	
	59	31	00	86	9	11	28	
	60	30	00	80)	10	24	
	61	29 28	04	8	I	· 09	20	
	62		0₿	8:	2		20	
	63	27	12	8:	3	07	20	
	64	26	16	8	4	06	12	
	63 64 65 66	25	20	8	5	05	12	
	66	24	24 28	8	6	04	12	
	67	23		8	7	03	12 '	
	68	22	32	8	8	02	04	
	67 68 69	21	32	8		OI	04	
	70 71	20	32	9	0	00	00	
	71	19	32	I				

What is that Position of the Globe denominated a right re?

. The Inhabitants of the Earth are some times distinguishcording to the various Position of their Horizon, as they ituate in a right Sphere, a parallel Sphere, or an oblique re. Vide Plate 3.

a right Sphere the Equator passes through the th and Nadir, and the parallel Circles fall per-Sphere. icularly on the Horizon, which is the Case of People who live under the Equinoctial Line. a parallel Sphere, the Poles are in the Zenith Nadir; the Equator is parallel to, and coinwith the Horizon, and the parallel Circles

A parallel Sphere.

parallel to the Horizon, which can only be faid of People r either Pole.

an oblique Sphere, the Inhabitants have one An oblique be Poles above, and the other under the Ho-Sphere. s, and the Equator and parallel Circles cut-

the Horizon obliquely, as is the Case of all People that do live under the Equinoctial Lines.

How is the Globe to be rectified in order to find the true ttion of any Place upon it?

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M. Let the Globe be fet upon a level Table, and the branca Meridian fland due North and South, then bring the given Place to the brazen Meridian, and let there be 90 Degrees between that Place and the Horizon both North and South, and the given Place will be in the Zenith; the Globe being thus rectined, you may proceed to folve any Problem.

S. How shall I find the Longitude and Latitude of the given

Place?

M. The Longitude of fuch a Place will be Longitude and Latitude found by numbering on the Equator fo many Defound by the grees as the Place lies East or West of the first Meridian: And the Latitude will be found by counting fo many Degrees on the brazen Meridian, as the Place lies North or South of the Equator. You must turn the Globe therefore either East or West, till the given Place is brought to the brazen Meridian, and you will see the Degree of Longitude marked on the Equator; and the Latitude is found at the same time, only by numbering the Degrees on the brazen Meridian either North or South of the Equator, till

you come to the given Place. S. How shall I find what Places are under the same Meridian

with the given Place?

M. This is done only by bringing the given Places under Place to the brazen Meridian, and observing what the fame Places lie under that Meridian, either North & Meridian. South of the Equator.

S. How shall I find what Places have the same Latitude?

M. This is done only by turning the Globs Places under round, and observing on the brazen Meridian the fame what Places come under the fame Degree of La-Parallel. titude as the given Place is.

S. How shall I find the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic at any

time of the Year?

M. When you know the Month, and Day of the Month, you will find upon the wooden Ho-The Sun's Place in the rizon the Sign in which the Sun is opposite to the Ecliptic. Day of the Month, which is the Sun's Place is the Ecliptic at that Time.

S. How shall I know the Length of the Days at any Time

and at any Place?

3

M. Bring the given Place to the Zenith; Length of bring the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic to the the Day. Side of the Horizon, and fet the Index Hour Circle to 12 at Noon, or the upper Figure of 12, turn the Globe till the said Place in the Ecliptic touch

Western Side of the Horizon, and the Number of Hours between the upper Figure of 12, and the Hour the Index points to, thew how many Hours the Day is long, and confequently the Length of the Night; because so many Hours as the Days falls short of 24, must be the Length of the Night; as when the Day is 16 Hours long, the Night must of course be 8 Hours long.

S. How shall I find those Places on the Globe where the

Sun is in the Meridian at any time?

M. The Globe being rectified, and the Place To find in where you are brought to the brazen Meridian, wbat Places fet the Index of the horary Circle at the Hour of the Sun is in the Day at that Place, then turn the Globe till the Index points to the upper 12, and you will fee all those Places where the Sun is in the Meridian; as for Example, if it be 11 in the Morning at London, and you fet the Index at 11, turn the Globe till the Index points at the upper 12, and you will find Naples, which is an Hour or 15 Degrees East of London. And in all Places under the fame Meridian as Naples is, it must consequently be 12 at Noon at that Time.

In like manner, if it be 4 in the Afternoon at London, and you fet the Index at 4, and turn the Globe till the Index points at the upper 12, you will find Barbadoes; which is four Hours or 60 Degrees West of London, and at all Places under the fame Meridian as Barbadoes is, it must consequently be 12 at · Noon at that Time.

S. How shall I discover where the Sun is vertical at any time of the Year?

M. The Sun can only be vertical in fuch Places To find as lie between the Tropics; and to know this, you are only to find what Place the Sun is in the Ecliptic, and bringing that Place to the brazen ver tic**a**l. Meridian, observe what Degree of Latitude it has, for in all Places in that Latitude the Sun will be vertical that Day, and you will find all those Places only by turning the Globe round, and observing them as they come to the brazen Meridian.

8. How may I find where the Sun is above the Horizon, or thines without fetting all the 24 Hours in the Northern

Hemisphere?

M. The Day given must be when the Sun is the Northern Signs, and having found the Sun's where the Place in the Ecliptic, you must bring that Place Days are 24 the brazen Meridian, then count the fame Hours long. Jampher of Degrees from the North Pole towards the Equa-**.**

GEOGRAPHY, &cc.

tor, as there is between the Equator and the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic, then turn the Globe round, and in all the Place passing under the last Degree counted from the North Pole, the Sun begins to shine constantly without setting on the given Day: And the Rule will serve vice versa for any Place set in the Southern Hemisphere, when the Sun is in the Southern Signs.

S. How do we discover the Length of the longest and shortest Days and Nights at any Place in our Northern

Hemisphere?

200

M. Rectify the Globe according to the Latitude of the given Place, or which is the same thing, bring the given Place to the Zenith, then bring the first Degree of Cancer to the East Side of the Horizon, and setting the Index of the Hour

Circle to the upper Figure of 12, turn the Globe till the Sign of Cancer touch the West Side of the Horizon, and observe the Number of Hours between the upper Figure of 12, and the Hour the Index points to, and that is the Length of the longest Day, and the shortest Night consequently consists of so many Hours as the Day falls short of 24; and as for the Length of the Days and Nights in the Southern Latitude, they are just the reverse of those in Northern Latitude, and the Table of the Climates shews both the one and the other.

S. How may I find in what Place the Sun is rising or setting, or in its Meridian: Or what Parts of the Earth are enlighten-

ed at any particular time?

M. First find where the Sun is vertical at the given Hour, and bring that Place to the Zanis, fing, setting, or in the Meridian.

Places are in the Eastern Semi-circle of the Horizon, for there the Sun is setting, and in those Places in the Western Semi-circle of, the Horizon the Sun is rising, and in all Places under the brazen Meridian it is Noon Day: All those Places in the upper Hemisphere of the Globe are enlightened, and those in the lower Hemisphere are in Darkness.

S. How shall I find the Distance of one Place from 200-

ther upon the Globe?

M. If both Places lie under the fame Meridian, bring them to the brazen Meridian, and count thereon how many Degrees of Latitude the two Places are from each other, which being reduc'd to Units is the true Distance. Every Degree of Latitude containing to Geographical Miles, as has been of ferv'd already; and to Geographical Miles make near 70 Research

Miles. If the two Places lie under the same Parallel tude, then observe on the Equator how many Degrees gitude they are asunder, and observe in the Table A, my Miles a Degree of Longitude makes in that Latind then numbering the Degrees of Longitude on the reduce them to Miles, and that will give the Diof the two Places. For Instance, suppose Retterdam 52 Degrees of North Latitude, and 4 Degrees of Eafngitude, and Pyrmant lies under the same Parallel 5 Denist of Rotterdam, and I find that every Degree of Lonn this Latitude makes 37 Miles, then I multiply 37 by ch makes 185, being the Number of Miles between am and Pyrmont.

re the two Places differ both in Longitude and Latitude, lance may be found by measuring the Number of Deey are asunder by the Quadrant of Altitude, and reducing egrees to Miles. For Example, if I find the two Places Length of 10 Degrees afunder by the Quadrant, they cellarily be 600 Miles diffant from each other; because s which is the Extent of 1 Degree of Latitude, muly 10, makes 600 Miles on the Globe, in whatever on one Place lies from another, as the North, Eaft,

West, &c.

ow may I find how one Place bears of another, that ther it lies North-East, South-West, or on any other

the Compass from another Place?

Bring one of the Places to the Zenith, and Quadrant of Altitude there, then extend e other Place whose bearing you would and the lower Part of the Quadrant will

To find bow ene Place bears of an-

the wooden Horizon at the Point of the Compass inon the wooden Horizon, which is the true Bearing of

ow shall I find on what Point of the Compass the Sun

ets at any Place?

lring the given Place to the Zenith, and found the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic, e same to the Eastern Side of the Horizon, will shew on what Point of the Compass rifes. On the other hand, if you bring

To find on what Point of the Com. pass the Sun

's Place in the Ecliptic to the West Side of the Hot will shew on what Point of the Compass the Sun

202 G E O G R A P H Y, &c.

Of the grand Divisions and Subdivisions of the Earth.

S. Please to describe the Situation of the several Nations on the Face of the Earth.

M. The Earth is usually divided into the Eastern and Western Continents, or into the old and new World. That on the right Hand in a Map of the World is stilled the Eastern Continent, and that on the lest, the Western Continent.

S. What does the Eaftern Continent contain?

M. The Eastern Continent comprehends Escontinent.

M. The Eastern Continent comprehends Esrope, Asia, and Africa: Europe is the North-West Division, Asia the North-East Division, and Africa the South Division of this Eastern Continent.

The Division of the Habitable Earth, the square Miles of each Division and Subdivision, Capital Cities, with the Distance and Bearing of each from London, also the Time of each Country compared with that of England.

HE Terraqueous Globe is divided into

I. Europe
II. Afia
III. Africa
IV. America
Phabitable Earth
Seas, and unknown Parts

Superficies of the whole Globe

2,749,349,
10,257,487
8,506,208
9,153,762
30,666,806
117,843,821
148,510,627

Square Miles, 60 Miles in Length, to a Degree.

d Sub-	Square Miles.	Capital Cities.	Distance and Bear- ing from London.	Difference of Time from Lond,
E.				*H.M.
	150,243	Madrid	600 S	0 16 W
1	27,851	Lifton		o 38 W
	138,837	Paris		0 9 E
	75,576	Rome	780 S E	0 52 E
	181,631	Vienna	2 99	1 5 E
7	0.540	Amsterdam		0 18 E
k	163,001	Copenhagen		0 50 E
	228,715	Stackbolm	720 NE	1 10 E
	1,103,486	Petersburg	1080 N E	
0	226,414	Warfagu	766 S E	1 23 E
n Ear.	212,240	Conftantinople	1300 S E	1 56 E
lfles	105,634	London	First M	eridian.
in Afia	510,717	Burfa	1396 S E	1 58 E
	700,000	Mecca	2640 S E	
	800,000		2550 E	3 21 E
	1,857,500	Agra	3780 E	5 15 E
	1,105,000	Pekin	4380 N E	7 24 E
Ifles	811,980			
è	644,000	Chinyan	4480 N E	8 4 E
endent	778,290	Samarchand	2800 E	4 26 B
vite CA.	3,050,000	Tobolsky	2412 NE	4 10 E
	140,700	Grand Cairo	1920 S E	2 10 E
		Tolemeta	1440 S E	
		Erquiko	3590 S E	2 36 E
Morocco	111,800	Fez and Morocco	\$ 1080 S	0 21 W
ind Se-	100,600	Taflet and Segel- me/fe	\$ 1376 S	0 30 7 11
	143,600		920 S	0 13 E
		Tunis	990 S E	

ree of Longitude being 4 Minutes in Time, therefore by ongitude we have the Time. A Watch that is fet to Time all be 16 Minutes too fast at Madrid, as it lies to the West of 1 at London: And Vienna being 16 Degrees and 20 Minutes f the Meridian of London, consequently a Watch set at London Hour and 5 Minutes too slow at Vienna.

Division



and Sub- ion.	Square Miles.	Capital Cities.	ing from	Difference of Time from Land.
DPE.				*H.M.
	150,243	Madrid	600 S	0 16 W
gal	27,851	Li/bon	840 S W	o 38 W
ie .	138,837	Paris		0 9 E
	75,576	Rome	780 S E	O SZ E
any	181,631	Vienna	650 E	1 5 E
ind	0,540	Amfterdam	132 E	0 18 E
tark	163,901	Copenhagen	132 E 480 NE	o to E
len	228.710	Stockholm	720 NE	1 10 E
a	1.103.485	Peter fourg	1080 N E	2 2 E
rd .	226.414	Warfaw	766 S E	
y in Ear.	212,240	Conflantinople	1300 S E	
& Illes	105,634	London	First M	eridian.
	1-31-34			1
w in Aka	510,717	Burla	1396 S E	1 58 E
da	700,000	Mecca	2640 S E	3
		Ispahan	2550 E	2 21 E
	1,857,500	Agra	3780 E	5 15 E
	1,105,000	Pekin	4380 N E	7 24 B
ic Ifles	811,980		+3	,
uy	,900			
rese	644,000	Chinyan	4480 N E	8 4 E
ependent		Samarchand	2800 E	4 26 E
covite	3,050,000	Tobolky	2412 NE	
ICA.	3,-,-,-			7
	140,700	Grand Cairo	1920 S E	2 10 E
		Telemeta	1440 S E	
		Erquiko	3590 S E	
		A COLUMN TO STATE OF THE PARTY	C tola C	0 21 W
. Moracco		Fez and Morocco	I I 1200 5	0 20
and Se-	100,600	Toflet and Segel-	1 1376 S	0 30 1
(Je		messe	1240 S	0 18 W
-	143,600		920 S	0 13 E
	54,400		990 S E	20 E

Longitude being 4 Minutes in Time, therefore by Longitude we have the Time. A Watch that is fet to Time would be 16 Minutes too fall at Madrid, as it lies to the West of in at London: And Vicente being 16 Degrees and 20 Minutes of the Meridian of London them.

Division

Division and Sub- division.	Square Miles,	Capital Cities.	Distance and Bear- ing from London.	Different of Time from Lad.
				H.M.
8. Tripoli	75,300	Tripoli	1 260 S E	
9. Biledulzerid	485,000	Dare	1565 S	o 36 🐺
10. Zaora	739,200	I og affa	1840 S	10 24 W
1 1. Negroland	1,026,000	Madinga	2500 S	0 38 W
12. Guinca	510,000		2700 S	0 20 B
13. Loango	49,400	Loange	3300 S	0 43 B
14. Congo	172,800	St. Salvador	3480 S	ı o E
15. Augola		Mocbina	3750	o 58 E
16. Benguela		Benguela	3900 S	o 58 E
17. Mataman	144,000		l -	
18. Menometapa		Monomotapa	4500 S	1 18 B
19. Morocmugi	310,coc		4260 S	1 44 E
20. Caffers	200,340	C. Good Hope		1 4 B
21. Saffala		Soffala	4600 S E	2 17 K
22. Zanguebar	275,coo	Momambique	4440 S E	
23. Anian	234,000		3702 SE	2 40 K
24. Abistinia	378,coc			_
25. Nubia		Dancala	2418 SE	2 13 1
26. Defar. of Barca			1680 \$ E	1 33 15
27. Etbiopia	1,200,000		i 1	
28. African Isles	181,668		[
IV. AMERICA				
1. Britist Empire.		C1 1 T		•
1. Carolina	57,500	Charles Town	3450.W	5 2 W
2. Virginia	20,750	James Town	3210 W	s W
3. Maryland		Beltimore	3000 W	4 45 W
4. Pensilvania		Philadelphia	3100 W	4 55 📆
5. New Jersey	10,000	Elizabeth Town	3040 W	4 50 W
6. New York		New York	3coe W	+ 53 W
7. New Engl.	115,000	Bosto n Annapolis	2790 W	4 40 W
& Scotland S		Annapolis V	2580 W	4 24 W
8. Isles	42,972	Kingfion	1080 W	5 " "
2. Sparift Empire		26	. 0 NITT	c 📆
1. Ola Mexico	571,240		4800 NW	2 SA ## ##
2. New Mexico 3. Florida		Sancta Ft	4320 NW	/ % 🕳 📘
3. Fierran 4. Terra Firma		St. Augustine	3690 W	? %
		Cart bagena Lima	4320 W 5700 S W	4
5. Peru 6. Cbili	970,000		5700 S W	
	206,000	Alumetica		
7. Paragua	1,150,000	nji maki en	5460 S W	, ,, ,,

but

iSub-	Square Miles.	Capital Cities.	Distance and Bear- ing from London.	Difference of Time from Lond.
npire nand rance Ifles omin,	325,000 24,000 143,196	Unknown Unknown Unknown Havanna Port Louis	4080 NW	H. M. 5 26 W 6 5 W 5 46 W
2 Do- s are abor-	940,000 318,750	St. Salvador Unknown	2260 SW	4 42 W

Situation of each particular Country, with regard to nd Longitude, and to its contiguous States, we refer as, because they will shew this in a more agreeable

g Manner than any verbal Account could.

of Maps is obvious from their Construction. The the Meridians and Parallels shew the Longitudes and of Places, and the Scale of Miles annexed, their Dine Situation of Places with regard to each other, as: Cardinal Points, appears by Inspection, the Top of being always the North, the Bottom the South, the d the East, and the Left the West; unless the Comby annexed, shew the contrary.

revity, which we are necessarily obliged to observe, salso from taking any Notice of the Subdivisions of as well as of many other Particulars, which are to be rge Treatises on this Subject. But we hope our Ache several Countries will be found as entertaining and as their Shortness would admit. And though in a have taken Notice of the Climate, Government, venues, Forces, Character, Customs, Religion, Curio-of the several Nations, yet we have not thought thways obliged to say something upon these Heads,

but have enlarged upon them, or been entirely filent, as we judged it would be most entertaining or satisfactory.

Of SPAIN.

CLIMATE.] THE Air of Spain is generally pure and dry, hot, but exceeding healthful. The Winter is so moderate in the Valleys, that they have very little Occasion for Fires nine Months of the Year: On the contrary, it must be confested, that during the Months of June, July, and August, the Heats are insupportable to Foreigners, especially in the Heart of the Country, and towards the South. Defect of Corn is sufficiently supplied by various Sorts of excellent Fruits and Wines, which, with little Art and Labour, are here produced in great Plenty.

GOVERNMENT.] The King of Spain is as absolute a Monarch as any on the Face of the Earth; his Crown is hered-

tary, and descends to Females.

REVENUES.] The King's Revenues, which arise from various Customs and Duties laid on Goods, &c. it is presumed, do not amount to much more than 5,000,000 l. Sterling, when the Multitude of Salaries, Perquisites, &c. are deducted.

the Multitude of Salaries, Perquisites, &c. are deducted.

Forces.] It is said, the Spanish Troops amount to about 70,000, in time of Peace, which is a Force sufficient to repulse any Enemy that shall attempt to invade them; even France it

felf, if unaffifted by the Maritime Powers.

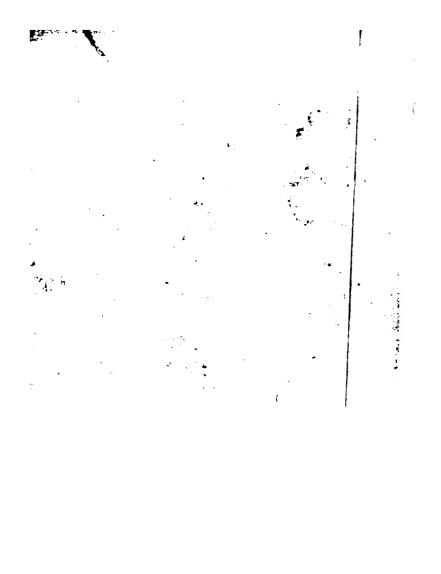
RELIGION.] The Roman Catholic being the Religion of Spain, no other Denomination of Christians are tolerated. It the Spaniards are exceedingly devoted to their Clergy, they is led by them into the grossest Superstition and Bigotry.

CUSTOMS.] In Paffion-week the Spaniards practife great Aufterities; fome will procure themselves to be saftened to a Cross in their Shirts, with their Arms extended in Imitation of the Saviour, uttering the most dismal Groans and Lamentations others will walk barefooted over Rocks and Mountains, to some

distant Shrine, to perform their Devotions.

But on Festivals the Scene is very different; for then they expose the richest Shrines, and all the Treasures of their Churchesto public View; the People are adorned with all their Jewest and in the hottest Weather, when the Sun shines out in its Lustre, they carry lighted Torches in their Hands, which, with the Sun-beams over their Heads, almost melt the superstinate Crowd.

Serenading feems to be a Divertion almost peculiar to he People. Not a young Fellow scarce, when the Love-fe





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pon him, his spends the best Part of the Night in such Amuseness, his they had little more Knowledge of the Lady than Den Ladve, had of the celebrated Dulcinea.

The Spaniards are inchanted with their Bull-feafts: Howver these Entertainments are not exhibited so frequently as

armerly.

CURIOSITIES.] In the City of Granada is a large sumptu-us Palace of the Morifo Kinggi said to contain Lodgings and accommodation for near Forty thousand People; the Walls shereof are Und with Jasper, Porphyry, and other beautiful starbles, which form a sort of Mosaic Work, with abundance f Inscriptions in Arabian Characters.

Of PORTUGAL.

LIMATE.] THE Face of this Country is very rough, and the Mountains are some of the most barren the Mountains are some of the most barren n that Part of the Continent; however, towards the Bottoms f them, they are well planted with Vines, which yield exellent Wines. Portugal produces Abundance of Olives, Figa, Raine, Pomegranates, and other Fruits common to us; but they re not reckoned so good as those in the Southern Provinces of

pain.

GOVERNMENT.] This Kingdom, after several surprising Turns of Fortune, was seized upon in the Year 1580 by Phi-II. King of Spain, and it continued a Spanish Province till 640. The Spaniards having been weakened by a long War rith France, and the Revolt of the Catalonians, the Portumese had a fair Opportunity of delivering their Country from n intolerable foreign Yoke; and as the Duke of Braganza the next in Blood to their former Princes, they made him in Offer of the Crown, which he accepted; but much Blood the fined to maintain him in it afterwards. The King of Porgal is an absolute Monarch, and his Crown hereditary. The vil Government of Portugal and Spain have a great Resemfor the Portuguese endeavour to imitate their Neighin all public Affairs.

REVENUES.] The King of Portugal's Revenues arise chieffrom the Goods exported and imported: The whole clear beenue, upon a moderate Computation, is about 1,200,000l.

⇒ling.

CORCES.] The Forces of the King of Pertugal, according the best Account, do not amount to 20,000; nor can they

go 6 n qui gull h e

E

	G	E O	GR	APH	r,	&cc.	197
	Deg.	Miles.	Min.	1	Deg.	Miles.	
rator		37	00		72	18	32
	53	36	09	1	73	17	32
	54	35	26	İ	74	16	32
	55	34	24	1	75 76	15	32
	55 56 57 58	33	32	1	76	14	3 2
	57	32	40 48	1	77 78	13	3 2
	58	31		1	78	12	32 28
	59 60	31	00		79 80	11	
	60	30	00	1	80	10	24
	61	29	04	1	18	, 09	20
	62	28	08	ł	82	o8	20
	63	27	12	l	83	07	20
	63 64 65 66	26	16	1	84	06	12
	65	25	20	İ	85	05	12
	66	24	24		86	04	12
	67 68	23	28		87 88	03	12
	68	22	32	}	88	02	04
	69	21	32		89	01	04
	70	20	32	1	90	00	00
	71	19	32	1			

3. What is that Polition of the Globe denominated a right nere?

M. The Inhabitants of the Earth are some times distinguishaccording to the various Position of their Horizon, as they situate in a right Sphere, a parallel Sphere, or an oblique

nere. Vide Plate 3.

In a right Sphere the Equator passes through the nith and Nadir, and the parallel Circles sall perdicularly on the Horizon, which is the Case of see People who live under the Equinoctial Line. In a parallel Sphere, the Poles are in the Zenith i Nadir; the Equator is parallel to, and coines with the Horizon, and the parallel Circles parallel to the Horizon, which can only be said

A parallel Sphere.

A right

Sphere.

parallel to the Horizon, which can only be faid of People der either Pole.

In an oblique Sphere, the Inhabitants have one the Poles above, and the other under the Hoon, and the Equator and parallel Circles cut-

g the Horizon obliquely, as is the Case of all People that do

S. How is the Globe to be rectified in order to find the true nation of any Place upon it?

M. Let

M. Let the Globe be set upon a level Table, and the brazes Meridian stand due North and South, then bring the given Place to the brazen Meridian, and let there be 90 Degrees between that Place and the Horizon both North and South, and the given Place will be in the Zenith; the Globe being thus rectified, you may proceed to solve any Problem.

S. How shall I find the Longitude and Latitude of the given

Place?

A. The Longitude of fuch a Place will be found by numbering on the Equator so many Degrees as the Place lies East or West of the sirst Meridian: And the Latitude will be found by counting so many Degrees on the brazen Meridian, as the Place lies North or South of the Equator. You must turn the Globe therefore either East or West, till the given Place is brought to the brazen Meridian, and you will see the Degree of Longitude marked on the Equator; and the Latitude is

brazen Meridian either North or South of the Equator, till you come to the given Place.

S. How shall I find what Places are under the same Meridian

found at the same time, only by numbering the Degrees on the

with the given Place?

Places under the fame Meridian. M. This is done only by bringing the given Place to the brazen Meridian, and observing what Places lie under that Meridian, either North or South of the Equator.

S. How shall I find what Places have the same Latitude?

Places under the fame Parallel.

M. This is done only by turning the Globe round, and observing on the brazen Meridian what Places come under the same Degree of Latitude as the given Place is.

S. How shall I find the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic at any

time of the Year?

M. When you know the Month, and Day of the Month, you will find upon the wooden Horizon the Sign in which the Sun is opposite to the Day of the Month, which is the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic at that Time.

S. How shall I know the Length of the Days at any Time,

and at any Place?

Length of the Day.

M. Bring the given Place to the Zenith; then bring the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic to the Education Side of the Horizon, and fet the Index of the Hour Circle to 12 at Noon, or the upper Figure of 12, and turn the Globe till the faid Place in the Ecliptic touch the Western

4-1

Wettern Side of the Horizon, and the Number of Hours betogeth the upper Figure of 12, and the Hour the Index points hew how many Hours the Day is long, and confequently the Length of the Night; because so many Hours as the Days falls short of 24, must be the Length of the Night; as when the Day is 16 Hours long, the Night must of course be 8 Hours long.

S. How shall I find those Places on the Globe where the

Sun is in the Meridian at any time?

M. The Globe being rectified, and the Place To find in where you are brought to the brazen Meridian, wbat Places fet the Index of the horary Circle at the Hour of the Sun is in the Day at that Place, then turn the Globe till the Index points to the upper 12, and you will fee all those Places where the Sun is in the Meridian: as for Example, if it be 11 in the Morning at London, and you set the Index at 11, turn the Globe till the Index points at the upper 12, and you will find Naples, which is an Hour or 15 Degrees East of London. And in all Places under the same Meridian as Naples is, it must consequently be 12 at Noon at that Time.

In like manner, if it be 4 in the Afternoon at London, and you fet the Index at 4, and turn the Globe till the Index points at the upper 12, you will find Barbadoes, which is four Hours or 60 Degrees West of London, and at all Places under the fame Meridian as Barbadoes is, it must consequently be 12 at Noon at that Time.

S. How shall I discover where the Sun is vertical at any time of the Year?

M. The Sun can only be vertical in such Places To find as lie between the Tropics; and to know this, you are only to find what Place the Sun is in the Ecliptic, and bringing that Place to the brazen Meridian, observe what Degree of Latitude it has, for in all Places in that Latitude the Sun will be vertical that Day, and you will find all those Places only by turning the Globe round, and observing them as they come to the brazen Meridian.

8. How may I find where the Sun is above the Horizon, or thines without fetting all the 24 Hours in the Northern

Hemisphere?

M. The Day given must be when the Sun is in the Northern Signs, and having found the Sun's wbere the Place in the Ecliptic, you must bring that Place Days are 24 to the brazen Meridian, then count the fame Hours long. Number of Degrees from the North Pole towards the Equa-

the Ecliptic, then turn the Globe round, and in all the Englishing under the last Degree counted from the North Table the Sun begins to shine constantly without setting on the given Day: And the Rule will serve vice versa for any Place set in the Southern Hemisphere, when the Sun is in the Southern Signs.

fortest Days and Nights at any Place in our Northern

Hemisphere?

M. Rectify the Globe according to the Latitude of the given Place, or which is the fame thing, bring the given Place to the Zenith, then bring the first Degree of Cancer to the East Side of the Horizon, and setting the Index of the Hour

Circle to the upper Figure of 12, turn the Globe till the Sign of Cancer touch the West Side of the Horizon, and observe the Number of Hours between the upper Figure of 12, and the Hour the Index points to, and that is the Length of the longest Day, and the shortest Night consequently consists of so many Hours as the Day falls short of 24; and as for the Length of the Days and Nights in the Southern Latitude, they are just the reverse of those in Northern Latitude, and the Table of the Climates shews both the one and the other.

S. How may I find in what Place the Sun is rising or setting, or in its Meridian: Or what Parts of the Earth are enlighten-

ed at any particular time?

M. First find where the Sun is vertical at the given Hour, and bring that Place to the Zenith, fing, setting, or in the Meridian.

Places are in the Eastern Semi-circle of the Horizon, for there the Sun is setting, and in those Places in the Western Semi-circle of, the Horizon the Sun is rising, and in all Places under the brazen Meridian it is Noon Day: All those Places in the upper Hemisphere of the Globe are enlightened, and those in the lower Hemisphere are in Darkness.

S. How shall I find the Distance of one Place from ano-

ther upon the Globe?

M. If both Places lie under the fame Meridian, bring them to the brazen Meridian, and count thereon how many Degrees of Latitude the two Places are from each other, which being reduc'd to Units is the true Distance. Every Degree of Latitude containing 60 Geographical Miles, as has been observed already; and 60 Geographical Miles make near 70 Each Containing 60 Geographical Miles Miles Miles Miles Miles Miles Miles Miles Miles Miles Miles Miles Miles Miles Miles

Miles. If the two Places lie under the same Parallel tude, then observe on the Equator how many Degrees gitude they are afunder, and observe in the Table A, any Miles a Degree of Longitude makes in that Latind then numbering the Degrees of Longitude on the r, reduce them to Miles, and that will give the Diof the two Places. For Instance, suppose Retterdam 52 Degrees of North Latitude, and 4 Degrees of Eafingitude, and Pyrmant lies under the fame Parallel 5 De-aft of Rotterdam, and I find that every Degree of Lonn this Latitude makes 37 Miles, then I multiply 37 by ch makes 185, being the Number of Miles between am and Pyrment ..

ere the two Places differ both in Longitude and Latitude. tance may be found by measuring the Number of Desey are afunder by the Quadrant of Altitude, and reducing egrees to Miles. For Example, if I find the two Places Length of 10 Degrees afunder by the Quadrant, they ceffarily be 600 Miles diffant from each other; because s which is the Extent of 1 Degree of Latitude, mul-19.10, makes 600 Miles on the Globe, in whatever on one Place lies from another, as the North, Eaft,

West, &c.

ow may I find how one Place bears of another, that ther it lies North-East, South-West, or on any other

f the Compass from another Place?

Bring one of the Places to the Zenith, and Quadrant of Altitude there, then extend ie other Place whose bearing you would and the lower Part of the Quadrant will the wooden Horizon at the Point of the Compass in-

To find bonu one Place bears of an-

on the wooden Horizon, which is the true Bearing of n Place.

ow shall I find on what Point of the Compass the Sun

lets at any Place?

Bring the given Place to the Zenith, and found the Sun's Place in the Ecliptic, e same to the Eastern Side of the Horizon, will shew on what Point of the Compass rises. On the other hand, if you bring

To find on. what Point of the Cam. pass the Sun

's Place in the Ecliptic to the West Side of the Hot will shew on what Point of the Compass the Sun

Of the grand Divisions and Subdivisions of the Earth.

S. Please to describe the Situation of the several Nations on the Face of the Earth.

M. The Earth is usually divided into the Eastern and Western Continents, or into the old and new World. That on the tight Hand in a Map of the World is stilled the Eastern Continent, and that on the lest, the Western Continent.

S. What does the Eastern Continent contain?

Ballers
Continued.

M. The Eaftern Continent comprehends Estrope, Afia, and Africa: Europe is the North-West Division, Afia the North-East Division, and Africa the South Division of this Eastern Continent.

The Division of the Habitable Earth, the square Miles of each Division and Subdivision, Capital Cities, with the Distance and Bearing of each from London, also the Time of each Country compared with that of England.

HE Terraqueous Globe is divided into,

I. Europe	2,749, 349,
Il. Afia	10,257,487
III. Africa	8,506,208
IV. America	9,153,762
Habitable Earth	30,666,806
Seas, and unknown Parts	117,843,821
Superficies of the whole Globe	148,510,627

Square Miles, 60 Miles in Length, to a Degree.

ind Sub-	Square Miles.	Capital Cities.	Distance and Bear- ing from London.	Difference of Time from Lond,
PE.				*H.M.
1	150,243	Madrid	600 S	o 16 W
eal !	27,851	Lilban		o 38 W
	128 827	Paris	203 E	
	138,837 75,576	Rome	780 S E	O CO F
ideas	181,631	Vienna	650 E	1 5 E
iny	0.540	Amfterdam	132 E	2 19 F
irk	9,540	Copenhagen	480 NE	o so E
n	203,001	Stockbolm	720 NE	J JO E
"	220,/15	Peter sburg	1080 N E	
1	1,103,405	Warfaw	766 S E	
in Eur.	220,414	Conflantinople	1300 S E	
5 Isles	105,634	Landon	Fire M	eridian.
o Inte	105,034	Longon	Phi w	I cridian.
in 160		Dame.	1396 S E	O T
in Afia	510,717	Maria		
a	790,000		2640 S E	
2.		Ispaban	2550 E	
	1,857,500		3780 E	5 15 E
TO	1,105,000		4380 N E	7 24 B
c Ifles	811,980			
"		CI.	O NE	
ese		Chinyan	4480 N E	8 4 E
pendent	778,290	Samarchand	2800 E	4 20 E
ovite	3,050,000	1 oboljky	2412 NE	4 10 E
ICA.		C	C.P.	***
		Grand Cairo	1920 S E	
1		Tolemeta	1440 S E	
	30,000	Erquiko	3590 S E	2 30 E
Morocco		Fex and Morocco	1 1 200 S	0 21 W
and Se-	100,600	Taflet and Segel-	1 1376 S	0 30 2 0
Te		meffe	2 1240 S	0 18 5
1	143,600		920 S	0 13 E
	54,400		990 S E	0 39 E

gree of Longitude being 4 Minutes in Time, therefore by Longitude we have the Time. A Watch that is fet to Time rould be 16 Minutes too fast at Madrid, as it lies to the West of in at London: And Figure being 16 Degrees and 20 Minutes of the Meridian of London, consequently a Watch set at London Hour and 5 Minutes too slow at Vienna.

Division

Division and Sub-	Square Miles.	Capital Cities.	Diffance and Bear- ing from London.	from Lond
8. Tripoli 9. Biledul; erid 10. Zaara 11. Negroland 12. Guinea 13. Loanço 14. Congo 15. Angola 10. Benguela 17. Mataman	485,000 739,200 1,026,000 510,000 49,400 172,800 38,400 64,000	Tegaffa Madinga Benin Loango St. Salvador Mochina Benguela	1260 S E 1565 S 1840 S 2500 S 2700 S 3300 S 3480 S 3750 3900 S	o 36 W o 24 W o 38 W o 20 E o 43 E c 58 E o 58 E
18. Menometapa 19. Menomegi 20. Caffers 21. Saffala 22. Zanguebar 23. Anian 24. Abifinia 25. Nubia 26. Defar. of Barca 27. Etbiopia 28. African Isles	310,000 200,340 27,500 275,000 234,000 378,000 264,000	C. Good Hope Saffala Momambique Brawa Caxumo Dancala Angela		2 38 E 2 40 E 2 13 E
IV. AMERICA 1. Britis Empire. 1. Carolina 2. Virginia 3. Maryland 4. Pensilwania 5. New Jersey 6. New York 7. New Engl. & Scotland 8. Isles 2. Spanis Empire	57,500 20,750 12,260 12,500 10,000 8,100	Charles Town James Town Baltimore Philadelphia Elizabeth Town New York Bofton Annapolis Kirgjion	3000 W 2790 W 2580 W	5 2 W 5 4 45 W 4 45 W 4 50 W 4 50 W 4 50 W 4 40 W 5 6
1. Ola Mexico 2. New Mexico 3. Florida 4. Terra Firma 5. Peru 6. Chili 7. Paragua	113,000	Sancta Fe St. Augustine Cartbagena Lima Sr. Jago	48co NW 432e NW 3690 W 4320 W 5700 S W 7200 S W 5460 S W	7 17 W 5 25 W 5 6 W 5 6 W

tandSab-	Square Miles.	Capital Cities.	Diffance and Bear- ing from London.	Difference of Time from Lond.
nd of				H. M.
rellanica ifornia		Unknown Unknown Unknown		
s 6 Empire		Havanna		5 26 W
ifiana 1ada and	516,000	Port Louis	4080 NW	6 5 W
w France ench Isles b Domin.	1,059,100 21,521	Quebec		5 46 W
rassew vair gaese Do-	342 168			
tions are il de Labor- der	940,000 318,750	St. Sakvador Unknown	2260 SW	4 42 W

the Situation of each particular Country, with regard to le and Longitude, and to its contiguous States, we refer Maps, because they will shew this in a more agreeable

iking Manner than any verbal Account could.

use of Maps is obvious from their Construction. The sof the Meridians and Parallels shew the Longitudes and les of Places, and the Scale of Miles annexed, their Di; the Situation of Places with regard to each other, as the Cardinal Points, appears by Inspection, the Top of ap being always the North, the Bottom the South, the hand the East, and the Lest the West; unless the Comually annexed, shew the contrary.

Brevity, which we are necessarily obliged to observe, is us also from taking any Notice of the Subdivisions of ies, as well as of many other Particulars, which are to be n large Treatises on this Subject. But we hope our Acof the several Countries will be found as entertaining and tory as their Shortness would admit. And though in we have taken Notice of the Climate, Government, Revenues, Forces, Character, Customs, Religion, Curiose. of the several Nations, yet we have not thought always obliged to say something upon these Heads,

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but have enlarged upon them, or been entirely filent, as we judged it would be most entertaining or satisfactory.

Of SPAIN.

CLIMATE.] THE Air of Spain is generally pure and dry, hot, but exceeding healthful. The Winter is so moderate in the Valleys, that they have very little Occasion for Fires nine Months of the Year: On the contrary, it must be confess'd, that during the Months of June, July, and dugust, the Heats are insupportable to Foreigners, especially in the Heart of the Country, and towards the South. Defect of Corn is sufficiently supplied by various Sorts of excellent Fruits and Wines, which, with little Ait and Labour, are here produced in great Plenty.

GOVERNMENT.] The King of Spain is as absolute a Monarch as any on the Face of the Earth; his Crown is heredi-

tary, and descends to Females.

REVENUES.] The King's Revenues, which arise from various Customs and Duties laid on Goods, &c. it is presumed, do not amount to much more than 5,000,000 l. Sterling, when the Multitude of Salaries, Perquisites, &c. are deducted.

Forces.] It is faid, the Spanish Troops amount to about 70,000, in time of Peace, which is a Force sufficient to repulse any Enemy that shall attempt to invade them; even France it-

felf, if unaffifted by the Maritime Powers.

Religion.] The Roman Catholic being the Religion of Spain, no other Denomination of Christians are tolerated. As the Spaniards are exceedingly devoted to their Clergy, they are

led by them into the groffest Superstition and Bigotry.

CUSTOMS.] In Passion-week the Spaniards practise great Aufterities; some will procure themselves to be fastened to a Cross in their Shirts, with their Arms extended in Imitation of our Saviour, uttering the most dismal Groans and Lamentation; others will walk baresooted over Rocks and Mountains, to some distant Shrine, to perform their Devotions.

But on Fettivals the Scene is very different; for then they expose the richest Shrines, and all the Treatures of their Churches to public View; the People are adorned with all their Jewels; and in the hottest Weather, when the Sun shines out in its sell Lustre, they carry lighted Torches in their Hands, which, with the Sun-beams over their Heads, almost melt the superstinest Crowd.

Serenading feems to be a Divertion almost peculiar to this People. Not a young Fellow scarce, when the Lore-&





on him, but spends the best Part of the Night in such Amuseents, the they had little more Knowledge of the Lady than ton Quinet had of the celebrated Dulcinea.

The Spaniards are inchanted with their Bull-feafts: How-

CURIOSITIES. Ligation City of Granada is a large sumptuterplace of the Morifo Kinggi said to contain Lodgings and commodation for near Forty thousand People; the Walls trees are last with Jasper, Porphyry, and other beautiful titbles, which form a sort of Mosaic Work, with abundance chastiptions in Arabian Characters.

Of PORTUGAL.

the Mountains are some of the most barren to the Mountains are some of the most barren to the Continent; however, towards the Bottoms them, they are well planted with Vines, which yield explent Wines. Portugal produces Abundance of Olives, planted, Lemons, Citrons, Almonds, Chesnuts, Figa, Railes, Pomegranates, and other Fruits common to us; but they not reckoned so good as those in the Southern Provinces of the southern Provinces

GOVERNMENT.] This Kingdom, after several surprising times of Fortune, was seized upon in the Year 1580 by Phill. King of Spain, and it continued a Spanish Province till to. The Spaniards having been weakened by a long Warm Prance, and the Revolt of the Catalonians, the Portuble had a fair Opportunity of delivering their Country from Intolerable foreign Yoke; and as the Duke of Braganza the next in Blood to their former Princes, they made him Offer of the Crown, which he accepted; but much Blood shed to maintain him in it afterwards. The King of Portal is an absolute Monarch, and his Crown hereditary. The vil Government of Portuguese endeavour to imitate their Neights in all public Affairs.

FINDER.] The King of Portugal's Revenues arise chieffrom the Goods exported and imported: The whole clear menue, upon a moderate Computation, is about 1,200,000l.

Concess.] The Forces of the King of Portugal, according the best Account, do not amount to 20,000; nor can they well

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well be thought to man and pay 30 Men of War of the Line If they have this Number of Ships, a Squadron of English, a Dutch, of half the Number, would not be afraid to engage them. They ferve chiefly for Convoys to their Brafil Flees, and are very often used as Merchant-ships to import Goods a Treasure from their foreign Settlements.

RELIGION.] The Tenets, groffest Errors and Corruptions of the Church of Rome, are embraced by the Portuguese, who, like the Spaniards, are exceedingly devoted to the Clergy.

Customs.] The Customs are in a manner the same with

those in Spain.

CURIOSITIES.] In a Lake on the Top of the Hill Stells in Portugal are found Pieces of Ships, tho' it be distant from the Sea more than twelve Leagues. Near to Roja there is a Lake remarkable for its rumbling Noise, which is commonly heard before a Storm, and that at the Distance of fifteen or fixteen Miles. About eight Leagues from Coimbra is a Fountair, which swallows up, or draws in, whatsoever Thing only touches the Surface of its Waters; an Experiment of which is often made with the Trunks of Trees.

Of FRANCE.

CLIMATE.] THE Air of this Country, in general, is very temperate, pleasant, and healthful; the Soil extremely fruitful, particularly in Corn, Wine, and Fruits.

GOVERNMENT.] As to the Form of Government of France, the legislative, as well as the executive Power, is vested solely in the King: His Edicts are of the Force of Acts of Parlisment with us, and he appoints the Judges and Officers who are to put them in Execution.

The Crown of France is hereditary; but all Females are ex-

cluded by the Salique Law.

REVENUES.] The Taxes usually levied in France are, the Taille, or Land-tax, the Taillen, the Subfishence-money, the Aides, and the Gabelles. By the Aides are understood all Duties and Customs on Goods and Merchandizes, except Salt. The Gabelles are Taxes arising from Salt. The other Taxes are, the Poll-tax; the Tenths of all the Estates of the Kingdom; the Fiftieth Penny, or the Fiftieth Part of the Produce of the Earth; the Tenths and Free Gifts of the Clergy-From these, and the Revenues arising from the Crown Lands, Fines,

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Fines, &c. and from the high Dutles imposed on all Provifions brought into Paris, arise Fifteen Millions Sterling, and
upwards, annually, to the Government. I cannot forbear
mentioning those violent Methods sometimes practised by the
French Court, in order to raise Money, to support her Projects and vast Armies; which are, raising the Value of the
Coin, and compelling the People to take Paper for their Money, and then compounding with them to take Half, or
perhaps a Quarter, of their respective Debts, when they
come to be paid: And it is supposed, that the King makes
as much by these oppressive Methods as the above annual
Revenues.

Forces.] The Armies of France were never so numerous as in the Reign of Lewis XIV. In the War which preceded the Peace of Utrecht, they amounted to near Land Forces.

less at present, when the Regiments are compleated.

RELIGION.] The established Religion in France is that of the Roman Catholic; but the Gallican Church pretends to enjoy greater Liberties and Privileges, and to be less subject to the See of Rome, than any other Christian State of that Communion. The Nation is divided into two great Parties, one of them zealous in defending the Rights of the Gallican Church against the Encroachments of Rome, and the other no less zealous in afferting the Pope's Supremacy. The Protestants (commonly called Huguenots) were formerly allow'd the public Profession of their Religion, by several Edicts granted by the French Kings: But the Repeal of these respective Edicts occasioned Civil Wars; and, at last, Lewis XIV. ordered all their Churches to be destroyed, and violently persecuted the Protestants; which forced great Numbers to leave the Kingdom, and feek for Shelter in foreign Parts.

CUSTOMS.] The usual Diversions of the French are, either Plays, Gaming, Walking, or Taking the Air in Coaches. Their Opera's in Paris are fine, and the Musick admirable. The Tuilleries, where Company walk in the delightful Gar-

dens of that Palace, are very beautiful.

The French do not eat that Quantity of Flesh that we do, nor do they often dress it in the Diet. same Manner: Soops, Fricasses, Ragouts, and Hashes, disguis'd with Onions, Herbs and Spices, are preferred before whole Joints boil'd or roassed. They hang up their Meat also before it is dress'd, till is so very tender,

that an Englishman would think it fit for the Dunghil. But if the French eat less Meat than we do, they are perfect Devourers of Bread, which is generally exceeding light and good. They have also great Variety of Wines, which are their ordinary Drink, and are supposed to contribute to that Spright-lines and Vivacity so remarkable in the French. Cyder is pretty much drank in the Northern Parts of France, which yield little or no Wine. This Nation is much more extravagent in their Dress than in Eating and Drinking. An Italian Painter, being defired to draw a Frenchman, represented him with a Pair of Sheers and a Piece of Cloth, intimating, that he was ever cutting out something new. This Levity in Dress is despised by their nearest Neighbours the Italians, Dutch, and Spaniards, who seldom alter the Fashion of their Cloaths.

Of ITALY.

TALY is compos'd of feveral independent States, which we shall therefore mention separately, and then say a few Words of the Whole.

The four first Divisions of Italy belong to the King of Sardinia. The first is Savoy. 2. Piedmont. 3. Montferrat. 4. Nice. The Revenues of the King of Sardinia areabout 500,0001; he keeps a good Body of Troops in Time of Peace, and can raife upwards of 30,000 good Soldiers. The Island of Sordinia, (belonging to the Duke of Savey) one of the largest Islands of the Mediterranean Sea, is 171 Miles from North to South, and 96 from East to West. There are 44 little Islands dependent on it, of which S. Antioco, S. Pietro, Travelara, and Afmara, are the chief; many of the other are uninhabited. Sardinia was given to the Duke of Savey, and the Title of King, in lieu of Sicily, which was given him by the Treaties of Utrecht and Baden, and taken from him in 1718. The Soil of this Island is fruitful, when it is manur'd; the Air in Summer is hot and fultry, and reckon'd very unhealthful. There are but few Towns of any Note, and but thinly peopled; and the Natives are an unpolished Generation. The Face of this Island is very rough. 5. Genoq, a Republic. Government is committed to the Doge or Duke, chosen every two Years, but lodg'd in the Senate. Revenues 200,000 L 20,000 Forces. Navy 6 Gallies. 6. Milan, Dutchy. The Govern-

Government is lodg'd in the Senate, subject to the Controul of the Emperor. Revenues about 300,000l. The Forces that can be raised are near 30,000. 7. Mantua, Dutchy. Government under the Emperor. Revenues about 80,000l. 8. Modena, Dutchy. The Revenues of this Duke, who is absolute, amount to near 100,000l. q. Parma, belongs to the Infant Don Philip of Spain. Revenues near 100,000l. 10. Venice. The Venetian Government is lodged in the Nobility; but conditionally committed to the Doge, who keeps his Post for Life. Revenues are 1,200,000%. Forces, 24,000. Navy, 30 Men of War, and 100 Gallies. II. Tuscany: divided into 1. the Florentine; 2. the Pisan; 3. the Sienneis. Subject to its own Duke. Revenues are 500,000%. Forces, small. Navy, 12 Gallies. 12. Lucca, Republic, to Spain. 13. Delli Presidii, to Spain. 14. Piombino, to Spain. 15. S. Marino, Republic. 16. Pope's Dominions. Government as absolute as any in Europe. The Revenues of his Holiness are very considerable. Forces, scarce worth notice. Navy, about 20 Gallies. 17. Naples. Naples and Sicily were both given to Don Carles, with the Title of King, in the Year 1736. His Revenues, 1,000,000/. Forces, about 20,000. Navy, about 20 small Men of War. 18. Sicily, which lies in a very warm Climate, but healthful Air, being refresh'd with cool Breezes from the Sea and Mountains. There is not a Country in Europe whose Hills and Plains are more fruitful than those of this Island, which has now the same Sovereign rith Naples. 19. Corfica. 20. Malta, (subject to its own Grand Master) is a small Island, about 20 Miles in Length, and 10 in Breadth, nearly of an oval Figure; and of a white Rock, covered with a Foot of Earth, or thereabouts. -The Air is generally clear and healthful, but excessive hot, hen it is not refresh'd with cool Breezes from the Sea; the fuitful enough. The Island is stock'd with loose Women Greece, who refort hither to accommodate the unmarried nights, and others who despise a conjugal Life. Their inguage is a barbarous Arabic.

CLIMATE.] The Air of Italy is generally pure, tem-

The Air of Italy is generally pure, temtere, and healthful, except in the Campania about Rome, here it is very unhealthful from June to September; and too the Appennine Mountains it is exceeding cold; on the teach Side of them, especially the South of Naples, the Heats troublesome; the North Side of them is more healthful, the seal as cooler, than the Provinces on the South; but here

p are some unhealthful Spots.

TRADE.]

TRADE.] Italy takes from England Broad-cloth, ells, Bays, Druggets, Calimancoes, and divers other Tin, Lead; great Quantities of Fish, as Pik Trade with Herrings, Salmon, Newfoundland Cod, &c. England.

per, and other East-India Goods. The modities England takes from them, are Raw, Throw Wrought Silk, Wine, Oil, Soap, Olives, some Dyers Anchovies, Marble, &c. Formerly we received a co able Balance from them; but the French now supplying with very great Quantities of Woollen Manufactures, an having got Part of the Newfoundland Trade, and as w port great Quantities of Thrown and Raw Silk from t to carry on our Manufactures, it is though Trade with Balance now against us is considerable. other Coun-Commodities exported out of Italy, into Foreign Parts, are chiefly Corn, Wine,

Silks, Velvets, Taffaties, Grograms, Fustians, their Manusactures; Gold Wire, Alum, Armour, Glasses, &c.

CHARACTER.] The Italians excel in a complaifant, ing Behaviour to each other, and Affability to Forci observing a Medium between the Levity of the French the starch'd Gravity of the Spaniards, and are by fa soberest People that are to be found in the Christian W though they abound in Plenty of the choicest Wines; there any thing like Luxury to be feen at the Tables They are generally Men of Wit, and have a G for Arts and Sciences; nor do they want Application. Poetry, Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture, are • favourite Studies; there are no People on the Face of Earth that have brought them to greater Perfection.

RELIGION.] The Italians are zealous Professors of Doctrine of the Church of Rome. The Yews are here rated in the public Exercise of their Religion. The Nat either out of Fear of the dreadful Inquisition, or in Rever to the Pope, or by being industriously kept in Ignorant the Protestant Doctrine, entertain monstrous Notions 4

the Diffenters from the Roman Church.

The Curiofities of this Country Curiosities. chiefly the following. In Rome are Ampitheatres, partice ly that begun by Vespasian, and finished by Domitian: I umphal Arches, as that of Constantine the Great, erected him in Memory of his Victory obtain'd over the Ty Maxentius, with this Inscription, Liberatori Urbis, Fund Pacis; that erected to T. Vespasian, upon his taking the C and spoiling the Temple, of Jerusalem; add the Triang

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bridge, whose Ruins are still visible near Port Angelo, so nuch reputed formerly, that, by a Decree of the Senate, none of the meaner People were suffered to tread upon the same: Baths of Antoninus Pius, which were of prodigious Bigness; hose of Alexander Severus, the magnificent Ruins whereof are lear the Church of St. Eustachio: The Pillar erected by M. furelius Anteninus the Emperor, in Honour of his Father Inteninus Pius, being as yet 175 Foot high; another Pillar a Honour of Trajan; another in Honour of Julius, upon his Vaval Victory over the Carthaginians; to these add the two Delisks formerly belonging to the famous Circus Maximus, regun by Tarquinius Priscus, augmented by J. Casar and fugustus, and adorned by Trajan and Heliogabalus; add the hree Pillars of admirable Structure, which formerly belonged to the Temple of Jupiter Stator, built by Romulus, upon his Victory over the Sabines: The Ruins of Templum Pacis, built by Titus Vespasian, adorn'd with some of the Spoils of the Temple of Terusalem: Lastly, the very Plate of Brass, on which the Laws of the Ten Tables were written, is still to be seen n the Capitol. In the Kingdom of Naples are the Remains of a fair Amphitheatre, and Cicero's Academy, near Puzzuolo; Ifo, between this Place and Baiæ, are the Arches and Ruins f that prodigious Bridge, being three Miles long, built by aligula. The Ruins of Nero's Palace, with the Tomb of . Virgilius Maro, in the Gardens of S. Severino, near the ntrance of the Grotto of Pausilipus, near Naples; which rotto is a large Cartway, about a Mile long, cut under ound quite through a Mountain. To these we may add that digy of Nature, the terrible Volcano Vesuvius, about 7 Miles n the City of Naples. The very Stone upon which Julius ar stood, when he made an Oration to his Men, pering them to pass the Rubicon, and advance strait to Rome, be seen at Rimini. Amongst the famous Roman Causewe may recken that of Flaminius, reaching from Rome imini, being five Days Journey, which employ'd the Solduring the Time of Peace.

Of $G E R M A N \Upsilon$.

HE Soil of the Netherlands is, in general, fo fertile, in Grain, Roots, and many Sorts of Fruits, that it is hardly to be parallel'd by any Spot of Ground in the fame Climate. Towards the North of Germ nv it is very cold in Winter, but in the Southmost Provinces the Air is very temperate, and the Soil of Germany, in general, is very fertile. The Air of Hungary is, by many, reckon'd very unhealthful; which is chiefly occasioned from the great Quantity of moorish Ground, and the many Lakes, with which this Country abounds. However, the Soil, in general, is very fruitful in Corn, and various Sorts of pleafant Fruits, and also affords excellent Pasturage. Hungary produces valuable Mines of Cop-

per, Iron, Quickfilver, Antimony, and Salt.

The Power of the German Emperors GOVERNMENT.] hath not been at all Times the fame: For Charlemain, who laid the Foundation of this Empire, enjoy'd great Part of Girmany, France, and Italy, of which he was absolute Monarch, and took the Liberty of disposing of his Dominions to his Succeffor at his Death, as many succeeding Emperors did after-The first Occasion of creeting a King of the Remark proceeded from a Contrivance of fome Emperors, to fecure the Imperial Crown to their own Families; they, making use of their Authority while they were in Pollession of the Throne, eafily influenced the Electors to chuse a Son, a Brother, or a Relation, to be crown'd King of Hungary, afterwards King of Behemia, and then King of the Romans. By this Custom the Empire seem'd to be intail'd on the Males of the Activiar Family, it having been much the same thing to elect a King of the Romans as to chuse an Emperor. But Leofold, the late Emperor's Father, form'd a Defign to fettle the Succession in the Female Line, on the Failure of a Male Issue; which Scheme, about fifty Years ago, was communicated to the Diets of the Empire, where it receiv'd all the Validity they could give it, and was called the Pragmatic Sanction. principal Members of the Empire, after the King of the Remans, are the Nine Electors, of whom the Three first are Ecclefiaffical, viz. the Electors of Mentz, Triers, and Colege; the King of Bohemia, the Duke of Bavaria, the Duke of Saxon. the Marquis of Brandenburg (King of Prussia), the Prince Palatine of the Rhine, and the Duke of Brunswick (King of England). Every Elector is Sovereign in his Dominions; they can make Laws, establish Courts of Justice, coin Money.

levy Taxes, make Alliances among themselves, and also with foreign States, provided they do not tend to the Prejudice of the Empire, raise Fortifications, and make Peace or War, under some Restrictions. Besides these Electors, there are many other Princes who exercise a Sovereign Power over those in their own Dominions. The General Diet, or Assembly of the Empire, consists of the Electors, Ecclefiastical Princes, Secular Princes, the Representatives, or Deputies, of the Imperial or Free Cities, which are a kind of little Commonwealths: This great Body comprehends above 300 different Sovereignties, which are the Subdivisions of the Nine Circles of the Empire. The Authority of the Emperor over Emperor's Prerogathe States consists, 1. In presiding at the Imperial Diets, and in having a Negative Voice therein. 2. In that all the Princes and States of Germany are obliged to do him Homage, and fwear Fidelity to him. 3. That he, or his Generals, have a Right to command the Forces of all the Princes of the Empire, when united together. 4. That he receives a kind of Tribute from all the Princes and States of the Empire, called the Koman Months. 5. That he can enfranchise Cities, institute Universities, and the like; and is the Fountain of Honour in his Dominions. But his Imperial Majesty has not the Power of making War or Peace, or of levying Taxes, without the Confent of the Electors, and other Princes of the Empire; neither can he make Laws, or suspend them, without Consent of the Diet, or Assembly of the States. Each of the Thirteen Cantons of the Switzers forms a Republic Government apart; but are leagued together, and constitute what is called the Commonwealth of the . Swiffes, or the Helvetic Body, from their ancient Name, Helvetii. The Government, in some of the Cantons, is Aristocratical, and, in others, Democratical: The Seven Aristocratical Cantons are those of Zurich, Bern, Lucera, Bookl, Friburg, Soleure, and Schafbausen: the other Six are De-: mocratical.

REVENUES and FORCES.] As to the Forces which the feveral Princes and Dominions of the Empire are, by their Revenues, or Taxes, able to maintain, they are computed to amount to upwards of 400,000 Men, whereof near 260,000 are usually kept in Pay in Time of Peace. As meither the Product, or Trade of Switzerland, of Switzerland, confiderable, the public Revenues are not land.

big every Year; which in a long Tract of Time, fur-

nishes them with a considerable Treasure. Standing Forces have ever been thought inconsistent with the Welfare of these Republics, since their first Institution; but there is no-where, in Europe, a better regulated Militia: With these they have, from time to time, maintained their Liberties against all the Attender of the House of Austria, and France. The

tempts of the Houses of Austria, and France. The Of Prussa. Addition of Silesia to the King of Prussa's Dominions, is a very considerable Acquisition, and this Prince may now maintain upwards of 50,000 Men; for it has been calculated, that, before this Conquest, he could maintain

40,000 Men and upwards.

RELIGION.] The Laws of the Empire give free Toleration to the public Exercise of the Popish, Cakrings, and Lutheran Professions. The Doctrine of Cakrin now Religion in bears a great Sway in Prussa, and some other

Religion in Pruffia, and fome other Pruffia.

Territories belonging to the Elector of Brandunburg. However, the greatest Part of the Empire

In Hungary. Itill adhere to the Popijb Religion. The prevailing Religion in Hungary is that of the Church of Rome; next to it is the Doctrine of Luther and Cakin; and besides these there are more Sorts and Sects of Christians, as also

many Jews and Mahametans.

CUSTOMS.] Hunting the wild Boar, or Deer, is the Sport most generally followed in Germany by the Quality. There is no Nation more in Love with Travelling than the Germans; but this Passion frequently ruins their Estates, and improverishes their Country; for a German Nobleman will not be seen in a sorieign Court, without an Equipage suitable to his Quality, and often beyond it. In their Houses Fire is seldom seen, except in the Kitchen; but their Rooms are heated by a Stove, or Oven, to any Degree they desire. In the Winter, they lay one Feather-bed over, and another under them.

Of the UNITED PROVINCES.

T HE Seven United Provinces are, 1. Holland. 2. Zealand 3. Utrecht. 4. Overyfel. 5. Friefiand. 6. Greeningen-

7. Guelder land.

CLIMATE.] The Air of this Country would be all Fog and Mith, if it was not purify'd by the Sharpness of their Frosts, which never fail to visit them, with every East Wind, for about Four Months in the Year, and are much severer than with us, though there is scarce any Difference in the Latitude: For the Wind comes to them over a long Tract of frozen Consinent; but is moistened by the Vapours, or soften'd by the Warmth of the Sea's Motion, before it reaches us. This Country lies very low; and though the Soil

is naturally wet, yet the industrious Inhabitants do so drain it by vast Multitudes of artificial Canals, that the Ground is made very sit for excellent Pasturage and Tillage. They employ the greatest Part of their Land in grazing of vast Herds of Kine. The natural Products of Holland are, chiefly, Butter and Cheese.

GOVERNMENT.] The United Provinces are a Confederacy of many independent States; for not only every Province is fovereign, and independent of any other Power, but there are, in every Province, several Republics, independent of each other, and which are not bound by the Decrees, or Acts, of the States of the Province, till such Decrees are ratify'd by each particular City, or Republic, which fends Deputies, or Representatives, to the Provincial Assembly. But all these, join'd together, make up one Republic, the most considerable in the World; which Republic is govern'd by the Assembly of the States General, confifting of Seven Voices, each Province having One. As these States General can neither make War or Peace, enter into new Alliances, or raise Money, without the Consent of every Province; so neither can the States Provincial determine these Things without the Consent of every Republic, or City, which, by the Constitution of the Province, hath a Voice in the Assembly: Which shews, that these Provinces and Cities are not united by so strong a Tye, as those who are govern'd by one Sovereign, except so far as Necessity obliges them to keep together. This Commonwealth grew to that Grandeur in the Space of Fifty Years, as to rival the most formidable Powers in Europe; and to dispute the Dominion of the Sea even with Britain, which rais'd them from Obscurity.

TRADE.] There is not a Nation under the Sun, where the People apply themselves with more Diligence to all manner of mechanic Arts, than the Inhabitants of this Country. The Manusactures formerly peculiar to other Countries are here almost brought to Persection; not so much by the Ingeniative of the Dutch, but, in Imitation of ancient Rome, this once distress'd People invited all others, in the like shatter'd Condition, to join them, and set up the same Employments as they carried on in their respective Countries. In Haerlem they make the finest Linen, and give it so pure a White, that they bring it from all the rest of the Provinces, and even soon Germany, and other foreign Countries, to bleach it here: It is Place are also manusactured fine Silks, Gauzes, and sower'd Velvets, Gold and Silver Brocades, and where they make Broad and Narrow Cloths, Serges.

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and Camblets; but still inferior to those of Britain, or they would not purchase our Woollen Manusactures to export to other Nations. Their Wool they have from Spain, Germany, and Turkey: Nor are the Silk Manufactures of Holland 6 good as those of France or Italy; but being cheaper, they go off better. As to the Navigation of this mighty State, it is frequently faid, that the Number of large Ships, and Vessels of Burden, is nearly equal to that of England; for, to the Baltic, it is computed, the Dutch employ a Thousand more Ships than the English; but this is balanc'd by the Number of Ships we fend to our Plantations in America, where the Hollanders have little or no Trade; but, however, in every other Country almost, whither the English and Dutch trade, more of our Ships are found than of the United Previnces: And, upon a late Computation, the Quantity of Shipping belonging to the English, amounts to 930,000 Tons; and to the Dutch, 900,000 Tons. The Trade of the United Provinces with the British Isles is very great: From England, particularly, they import Broad-cloth, Druggets, Long-ells, Stuffs of many Sorts, Leather, Corn, Coals, and fomething of almost every thing that this Kingdom produces; besides all Sorts of India and Turkey re-exported Goods, Sugars, Tobacco, Rice, Ginger, Pitch and Tar, and fundry other Commodities of the Produce of our American Plantations. England takes from Holland great Quantities of Fine Hollands, Linen, Threads, Tapes, Incles, Whale-fins, Brass Battery, Madder, Argol, Lint-seed, Sc. The Trade is said to be considerably to the Advantage of the Subjects of England. The Dutib manage a prodigious Trade in most of the known Parts of the World; and so industrious are they, and so numerous, that Holland may very properly by compar'd to a large Bee-hive; the Multitude of Ships, daily going out and in, lively repre-fent the Swarm of Bees, and the Hive is justly reckon'd the Warehouse of the richest and best Commodities of all Nations.

REVENUES.] The Subjects of the United Provinces are liable to a great Variety of Charges and Impositions. The Council of State draw up, every Winter, an Estimate of the Expences of the ensuing Year, which usually amount to near 3,000,000 Sterling in Time of Peace. This Sum is rais'd by an almost general Excise, and Customs, the chief of which are, I. A Duty upon Salt; 2. upon Beer; 3. upon Victuallers; 4. upon Candles; 5. upon Turf for Firing, and Coals from England; 6. upon English Cloth, the Third Part of the Value; 7. upon Wheat, Rye and Barley; 8. upon all Cattle, Sheep and Hogs.

that are kill'd, a Seventh Part of the Price; q. for every horned Beaft, above three Years old, Three-pence per Month; 10. upon all Farms and Lands, One Pound in Sixteen; 11. upon Soap, Eleven Shillings the Barrel; 12. upon Houses, the Eighth-part of the Rent. In short, there is not that Thing scarce in the whole Country but some Duty or other is laid upon it. Their extraordinary Taxes, in Time of War, are, 1. Poll-money, which is usually Twenty-pence per Head:
2. Chimney-money, Twenty-pence every Hearth: Or, 3. Land-tax, being Ten Shillings for every Hundred Pounds per The constant Charges, or Taxes laid upon them, to defend their Country against the Seas and Floods, amount to Sixty Pounds Sterling for every Rod of Sea-dyke; and, against the Rivers also, the Charge of maintaining the Banks is very great: But the greatest Charge of all is the Draining the Country, when it is overslowed, and their Dykes broken through, as they frequently are.

Forces.] The Land Forces confift of 25,000 Men. composed of Switzers, Scots, and other Foreigners, as well as national Troops. To the Standing Forces we may add the Troops they are obliged to keep in the Barrier Towns of the Austrian Netherlands. I shall not pretend to guess what Forces the United Provinces are able to maintain; but, from their extensive Commerce, Riches, and Number of People, we may, I presume, conclude, that there are not many Kingdoms in Europe able to equip out larger Fleets, or more numerous

Armies, than the States General.

RELIGION.] The Calvinists are the established Church; but no Country in Europe can boast of more Religions than this State; for here all Sects and Parties, in the open Profession of their respective Tenets, are tolerated for Trading fake; and yet 'tis faid that no Part of Christendom is less religious.

Customs.] Their usual Way of Travelling is in Trecht-

schutes, or cover'd Boats, drawn by a Horse, at the Rate of Three Miles an Hour, for which the Fare does not exceed a Penny a Mile, and you have the Conveniency of carrying a Portmanteau or Provisions, so that you need not be at any Expence at a Public House by the Way. A Person is not in the least exposed to the Weather in these Vessels, and can scarce feel any Motion; and a Passenger may read, or divert himself upon his Journey, as he thinks proper; and there is scarce a Town to which one may not go this Way every Day, and, if Lie be a confiderable Place, almost every Hour, at the Ringing fis Bell; but they will not flay a Minute afterwards for a Paffenger, v-,

Passengers, tho' they see him coming. The natives are very dextrous at Skating; and, when the Rivers and Dykes ars frozen up, both Men and Women skate from Place to Place, upon their Bufiness: It is incredible how swift some of them move in their Skates; no running Horse, it is said, can keep Pace with them. When the Snow is upon the Ground, and frozen over, young Gentlemen and Ladies appear abroad in the most magnificent Sledges; each Sledge is drawn by a Horse, decked with rich and glittering Harness; in these they run Races upon the frozen Snow: Great Numbers of these being seen in the Streets together, especially at Amsterdam, make a very beautiful Shew.

Of DENMARK.

HERE are a great Number of Islands on the Coast of Norway, and others belonging to that Kingdom, at a Distance from it; the most considerable of which is Iceland, the Northern Part of which lies under the Arctic Circle. Its Mountains are always covered with Snow.

CLIMATE. The North Part of Denmark's Denmark. faid to be very cold, and not very wholfome, especially near Copenhagen, which is supposed to proceed from its low Situation and frequent Fogs. There is scarce any Medium between extreme Cold and Heat; for the Spring and Autumn are of a very fhort Duration, and the Productions of the Earth are accordingly very speedy in their Growth. The Air, in the Southern Part, in general, is allowed to be good, and the Country pleasant enough. Denmark produces good Corn, and several Parts abound in Cattle, Hogs, and Horses. The longest Day, in the Northmost Part, is about 18 Hours, and, in the Southmost about 17: Therefore this Country lies in the 10th, 11th, and 12th Northern Climates.

Niravay and The Air of Norway and Lapland is to extremely Legland. cold, especially towards the North, that it is but thinly inhabited. The Face of the Country is very much incumbered with Mountains, and formidable Rocks, which produce scarce any Food for Man or Beast, and are almost con-

tinually covered with Snow.

GOVERNMENT.] Tho' the King of Denmark is an absolute Prince, he is pleafed, however, to act by Laws and Ru'es of his own and his Ancestors framing, which he takes the Liberty of repealing and altering, as he thinks fit.

REVENUES.] The whole Revenues of the King of Damark amount to about 500,000 l. Sterling upon the best Calculations i slations; which, in that Part of the World, will go near as r as three times that Sum with us, considering the Cheapness of rovisions and Labour in these Countries.

RELIGION.] Lutheranism is the established Religion in somers, and no other Denomination of Christians are toleted. The established Religion in Norway is the me as in Denmark, only that, on the Borders In Norway. Lapland, they differ but very little from mere eathers. The Inhabitants of Iceland, who own In Iceland. Legiance to the Danish Crown, are generally the me in Religion with the Danes; but the uncivilized Natives, so commonly abscond in Dens and Caves, still adhere to eir ancient Idolatry. Also in Wardhuys, or wwegian Lapland, the Natives are generally In Lapland, gans still, tho' they are usually denominated aristians; and, by the Innocence of their Lives, perhaps,

ferve to be ranked in the first Class, but seem to have very infused Notions of its Doctrines.

Customs.] The Danes in their Funerals are

deposit a Corpse in a Vault, or near the

murch, many Months together, in order to make Preparams to folemnize the Burial with the greater Pomp. The poor ople, indeed, are buried with less Ceremony; but even they attended to their Graves by a Set of Mourners, hired by try Parish for that Purpose. Holidays are observed as strictias Sundays; and, in the time of Divine Service, the Gates Copenbagen are shut. It is customary with the Danes to be attracted several Months and Years, and live in the most impact Familiarity, before the Marriage is solemnized at surch, but then these Contracts are very solemn, before ignose.

A Laplander, when he intends to marry, looks of the Lapt for a Maid well stock'd with Rain-deer; for landers.

is the Custom in Lapland, for Parents to give in Children, as soon as they are born, some Rain-deer, sich, for ever after, with all their Increase, belong to the sildren. The more Rain-deer a Maid has, the sooner she sy expect a Husband; for Laplanders do not regard Beauty, such Qualifications as are valuable to others. It is natural such as live in barren Countries, to be most solicitous for in Subsistence, which because the Rain-deer chiefly afford they look upon them as their greatest Riches, which there is the saint to marry a Manie Daughter, who lives in a convenient

nient Place for Hunting and Fishing. After a Laplander be pitched upon one he intends to marry, he, in Company was two or three Friends, undertakes a Journey to her Faths. Being come to the Hut, they are all invited in, except the Suitor, who stays for some time without, and passes away his Time in some trifling Employment or other, perhaps in claving of Wood, till at last he also is invited in; for, without at express Invitation, it is looked upon as a great Piece of Rudeness for him to come in. After they have fortified themselves with a Dram, the Spokesman begins to declare his Suit, defiring the Maid's Father to bestow his Daughter in Marriage upon the young Man; and, if the Father confents, that the young Man may pay his Respects to the Virgin, he goes directly out of the Hut to his Sledge, and puts on his best Apparel; after which they falute with a Kifs, and not only press their Lips, but likewise their Noses together, otherwise it would not pals for a true Salute. After this, he makes her a Prefeat of a Rain-deer's Tongue, and the like, which the refutes to accept in the Presence of others; but, being secretly called aside, without the Hut, if she accepts of the Present, the Suitor begs the Favour of her to let him sleep near her in the Hut, which if the grants, the Marriage is as good as concluded; but if the refuses, the throws the Presents at his Feet.

The Laplanders make use of Bows, in Hunting, of about three Yards long, two Inches broad, and one thick, made of two Pieces of Wood join'd within one another; and within the Piece of Birch, they put a Slip of Pine-wood, which by re-fon of its refinous Substance, is flexible, and consequently the most proper for drawing together, and fending forth the As-They make use also of Skates in Hunting, one which exceeds the Length of the Person that wears it by one Foot, and the other is one Foot shorter, both turn'd upward before, and fomewhat broader than the Soles of the Feet! They fasten these Skates to their Feet with a With, run through on both Sides, but not thro' the Bottom, which would hinder their fliding, or wear foou out by continual using; this come directly over the Midst of the Feet; and one half of the Skatt is before, and the other behind. They use a Staff in fliding at the End of which is a round Piece of Wood, which is to force themselves over the frozen Snow. Those that are Mar ters of Skating are scarce ever tired, though they travel never b far: They will pursue the Chace over the slippery frozen Snow with that incredible Swiftness, that they outrun the wild Randeer and Wolves; and, by various twifting of their Bodies and Windings and Turnings in their Way, they afcend the

eft Mountains, and likewise descend from the Top of those Mountains down to the Bottom, without any Danger of ing. This feems next to an Impossibility; but I find it afferted Rheen, and quoted by Scheffer. The Laplanders travel in res during the Winter Season; he who fits in it governs Rain-deer with a fingle Halter, which does not pass through Mouth, but is only fastened to the Head and Horns; this olds in his Right-hand, with a Stick at the End, and throws metimes on the Right, and sometimes on the Left-side of the n-deer, which turns to that Side where the Rope or Halter ches. The Sledge, being of a semi-circular Figure at the tom, is continually inclining to one Side or other, so that it its a conflant Balance, which must be done partly by the ly, and partly by the Help of the Hand of him who fits in it, fear it should overthrow in the swift Course.

Of SWEDEN.

IMATE.] THE Air of this Country is very cold; but, if not too near Lakes or Marshes, so pure and olfome to breathe in, that many of the Inhabitants live to a at Age. During the Winter, which in most Parts continues ma Months, and towards the North, the whole Country is ered with Snow a Yard or two thick, and the Lakes, Seas, Rivers are all frozen up. The Air in the Northern Parts b exceeding sharp, it is said, that Water sprinkled with one's nd, will freeze before it comes to the Ground; and it is no common thing, to find People who have loft their Nofes or igers by the extreme Cold; but the Snow is no fooner meltthan we see, on a sudden, Part of the Earth covered with en Herbs and Flowers. The Soil is not very fertile in Corn; : that Disadvantage is recompensed with pretty good Pastu-

GOVERNMENT.] This Kingdom is very ancient, and was merly elective; but after various Turns of Fortune, became reditary under the Reign of Gustavus I. But it appears at sent, that the Swedish Nobility and Gentry have of late not by fully recovered their ancient Liberties, but the States have neshed themselves with sovereign Power, and made their King tirely dependent on them; and Sweden may now be look'd on rather as an Aristocracy than a Monarchy. When a untleman or Nobleman commits a capital Crime, he is shot Death. By the Laws of Sweden, the Father's Estate, whethe hereditary or acquir'd, is divided among his Children,

every Son having an equal Share in it, and a Daughter half as much as a Son.

REVENUES.] The public Revenues of Sweden arife, either out of the Demesne Lands of the Crown, or from the Customs, the Coin, Copper and Silver Mines, Tythes, Poll-money, Fines, stamp'd Paper, and other Duties on Proceedings at Law; all which are computed to amount to a Million Stering, whereof the Customs produce about a Fourth Part, and the Demesne Lands a Third.

RELIGION.] The English affume the Honour of planting the Gospel among the Swedes, in the Beginning of the ninth Century. The Reformation was begun in Sweden in the Reign of Gustavus Erickson, at the Beginning of the fixteenth Century, who promoted it, as well upon politic as religious Views. The Clergy, in general, were his Enemies, and exceeding rich, which were two very strong Inducements to scize their Lands, and unite them to the Crown; and this he accomplish'd in his Reign, leaving the Clergy but a stender Maintainance. Lutheranism prevails here; nor will they suffer any other Denomination of Christians, whether Natives or Foreigners.

CUSTOMS] People of Condition of either Sex, are feldom married before Thirty, because their Parents, perhaps, cannot afford to make Settlements suitable to their Quality in this poor Country, where they live, notwithstanding, to the Height of their Income. Among the common People, it seems, the Wise hath much the worst of it, being put to all the Drudgeries both within and without Doors, and looks upon herself to be rather in the Condition of a Servant, than a Companion to her Hubband; and contequently there is very little Wrangling and Dis-

puting between them.

Of MOSCOVY, or RUSSIA in Europe.

CLIMATE.] THE Air of this Country must be very different, it being of a valt Extent: Towards the North, (as in Swedish Lapland, and the Northern Part of Swedish the Air is so exceeding tharp, that the Natives sometimes lose their Noses or Fingers; however, in many of the Northern Parts, it is so who dome to breathe in, that the Inhabitanis live to a very great Age. The most Northern Provinces are very barren, producing very sew of the Necessars of Life. During the Winter, which in most of the Southern Provinces continues seven Months, and towards the Northern Provinces continues seven Months and towards the Northern Provinces continues seven Months and towards the Northern Provinces continues seven Months and towards the Northern Provinces continues seven Months and towards the Northern Provinces continues seven Months and towards the Northern Provinces continues seven Months and towards the Northern Provinces continues seven Months and towards the Northern Provinces continues seven Months and towards the Northern Provinces continues seven Months and towards the Northern Provinces continues seven Months and towards the Northern Provinces continues seven Months and towards the Northern Provinces contin

nine, the whole Country is covered with Snow; which supplies the Place of Manure, rendering the Soil so fruitful in the Middle and Southern Parts, that the Snow is no sooner melted, than, on a sudden, the Earth is covered with green Herbs and Flowers, and the Corn is ready for reaping in about two Months after it is sown. Travellers relate that, in the Heart of Moscowy, the Summer Heats are almost as intolerable as the Winter's Cold; that, in the Summer-time, the Sun, raising the Vapours in the Lakes, and marshy Grounds, about Petersburg in Lat. 60. occasions Tempests of Thunder and Lightning almost every Day, and that the Heat is then as troublesome as the severe Cold in Winter.

GOVERNMENT.] The Crown of Moscowy is hereditary, and the Government truly despotical: The Lives and Estates of the

Subjects are wholly at the Disposal of the Sovereign.

Forces.] The Moscovites have very near 120,000 regular Troops, exercised and disciplined after the modern Way, commanded either by Officers which have been invited into their Service from Abroad, or such as have been taken out of the Nursery of the Guards, wherein the Czar, to induce others to imitate him, serv'd himself, first as a Drummer, then a Corporal, and afterwards Serjeant, till he gradually rose to be Captain, appearing at certain Times at their Head, and exercising them himself. The Russians imagin'd, that he did this only for his Diversion, and the ancient Troops of the Kingdom seem'd delighted with the Performance of their Exercises: Whereupon this little Company (which consisted only of Fisty Men) grew into several Regiments, and became a Match for the ancient Troops, which was not taken notice of by them till it was too late.

RELIGION.] The Religion of Moscovy is that of the Doctrine of the Greek Church. Christianity was first introduced among them about the Year 989, though, according to their Tradition, St. Andrew first planted the Gospel in this Country.

CUSTOMS.] When any Person makes a Visit, on entering his Friend's House, he first looks about for the Saint, and having discovered it, makes a low Reverence towards the Place, and, if his Devotion be very warm, falls on his Face to the Ground before it, crossing himself and saying, Lord, have Mercy upon me; after which he turns about, and salutes the Master of the Family, and the rest of the Company; and the Lady presents him with a Dram, and suffers him to kish her Cheek; after which it was customary for her to withdraw, and appear no more during the Entertainment: But the late Czar introduced the Custom

of Ladies converfing more familiarly with the Gentlemen, by which he entirely won the Hearts of the Russian Dames.

CURIOSITIES.] The strange Sort of Melon, sound in the Southern Parts of this Country, may be reckoned as one of the chief Rarities: It resembles a Lamb, and its Heat consumes all the Herbs within its Reach; as the Fruit ripens, the Stalk decays, and is covered with a Substance exactly like Wool, short and curling; the Skin being dress'd as Tanners usually do the stelly Side of Lamb-skins without taking off the Wool, no Person can distinguish between the Skin of this Vegetable (if we may allow it to be such) and that of a common Lamb. The Mescovites use the Skin of this Thing, instead of Furs, for lining of their Vests. The stately Church, in the City of Mescow, called the Jerusalem, seemed to Jahn Basilides I. then Casa, such an extraordinary Pile of Building, that he ordered the Eyes of the Architect to be put out, that he might never contrive or behold its Fellow.

Of POLAND.

CLIMATE.] THE Air of this Country is, in general, temperate and healthful, but exceptive cold towards the North; and as it lies almost in the Middle of a large Continent, at a Distance from the Sea in most Parts, the Weather is more serene and settled, both in Winter and Summer, than in those Countries which border on the Ocean.

GOVERNMENT.] The legislative Authority seems to be lodg'd in the King, the Senate, and the Deputies or Representatives of the Nobility and Gentry. This Monarch lives in great Spleador; but, if we consider his Power, which is circumscrib'd within very narrow Bounds, he is in Effect no more than the chief Regent in a free Commonwealth. This King is always chosen by a free Election, where every Nobleman there present has his Vote; and though the Pales have been always inclin'd to keep to the Royal Race, yet have they never been for declaring a Successfor during the Life of the King. By the Laws of Palend the Father's Estate is equally divided among his Children; but here, as in most Popish Countries, the younger Children are encouraged by their Parents to go into a Monastery, to prevent the Estate from dwindling away to nothing, where the Issue is a numerous.

RELIGION.] The establish'd Religion in Poland is that estate Roman Catholic; and few People possibly are more and ous or bigotted in their Way; which may perhaps airie from

hat containt Opposition, and the Provocations they met with rom the Lutherans and Calvinists among them, and in their Neighbourhood. In Prussa, and in Courland, particularly, the Majority of the Inhabitants are Lutherans; but the rest of Poland being an Overmatch for Prussa, they have been frequently

empted to encroach upon the poor Lutherans.

Customs.] At an Entertainment the Poles lay neither Knives, Forks nor Spoons, but every Person brings them with im; and they are no fooner fet down to Table, but all the False are shut up, and not opened till the Company go away. and the Plate is taken Account of; for their Footmen are exeeding light-fingered. 'Tis faid to be no uncommon Thing to he a Gentleman, at one of these Feasts, give his Servant Part f his Meat, which he eats as he stands behind him, and to let im drink out of the same Cup with him. And though there is fually great Plenty of Provisions serv'd up, and much lest after he Entertainment is ended, yet very little is return'd to the Fanily, but the Gentlemens Servants seize what is lest; and they ave a Napkin on purpose, to carry off the Sweet-meats for their adies. After Dinner Bumpers are freely taken off, as in Moscowy; or will they eafily excuse any Person from pledging them. The final Way of Travelling is on Horseback; a Polish Gentleman ill scaree walk a Stone's Throw in a Town without his Horse Equipage. There are very few Inns upon the Roads; but, case of Necessity, or where there are but poor Accommodats, the Poles are so extremely hospitable, that, upon applying the Lord of any Village, he will supply the Traveller with rethenent gratis. Their Exercises are Hunting, and Feats of emanship, on which they value themselves much. Leap-Vaulting, and Jumping, are also much used here; and tiling is a favourité Diversion.

Of TURKY in Europe.

RNMENT.] THE Turkish Emperors are restrain'd by no Laws or Compacts, their Power is ed, and they look upon the Country as well as the People ed Property, and every Man's Life and Fortune in the to be at their Disposal. If any Viceroy, or Bassa, is for but suspected, of Disloyalty or Misconduct, there eeds any surther Conviction, it is so much the Interest wereign to ruin him, all his Fortune devolving on the life to seldom acquainted with the Nature of the Office.

fence, or the Names of his Accusers; but, without giving him the least Opportunity of making a Defence, a Capigi is Espatched, with an Imperial Decree, to take off the unhappy Bassa's Head. The Bassa receives it with the highest Respect, putting it to his Head, and, after he has read it, says, The Will

of God and the Emperor be done, or some such Expression, taking his entire Resignation to the Divine Will, and that of their Prince. Then he takes the Silken Cord, which the Capigi has ready in his Bosom; and having tied it about his own Neck, and said a short Prayer, the Capigi's Servants throw him on the Floor, and, drawing the Cord strait, soon dispatch him; after which his Head is cut off, and carried to Court, and shewn the Sultan. In general their Laws are equitable enough, if they were duly executed; but there is no Place in the World, where Justice is more frequently bought or sold; and though Bribery be so often practised, there is no Place where it is more severely punished, if the Sultan happens to be an active Prince, and concerns himself to inquire into the Conduct of his Officers.

The Grand Seignior's Seraglio, at Confloringle. is rather a Collection of Palaces and Apartments, Seraglio. added to one another, than one fingle Palace The Number that inhabit this Palace must be very large; for, 'tis faid, that annually there are spent here no less than 30,000 Oxen, 20,000 Calves, 60,000 Sheep, 16,000 Lambs, 10,000 Kids, 100,000 Turkeys and Geese, 100,000 Pigeons, 200,000 Fowls and Chickens, belides Wild-fowl and Fib. of the last of which they spend at least 130,000 Turbuts This Monarch never marries, or contracts himfelf to any Woman; nor are his Concubines ever the Daughters of his Mahometan Subjects. These Ladies are scarce ever suffered to go Abroad, except when the Grand Seignior removes from one Place to another. When they travel by Water, they are convey'd to the Boats, which are inclos'd on all Sides with narrow Lattices, by a Troop of black Eunuchs; and when they go by Land, they are put into close Chariots, and see nals are made at certain Diffances to give Notice that approach the Road they march. 'Tis faid, there are no less than 10,000 Gardeners about the Gardens of the Sergion The great Officers of State, who are generally of the North ber of these Royal Slaves, and receive their Education in the Seraglio, make up another Part of the Grand Seign Court: At the Head of these is the Grand Vizier, on the Emperor in a manner devolves his Authority, leaving the

Administration of Affairs intirely in his Hands. This Statefman, book'd upon to be much more secure in Time of War than in Peace, especially if he meets with but tolerable Success; for the Troops seldom lie idle long but they mutiny, and perhaps demand the Heads of those whom they imagine their Enemies: And we find these Sultans ready to give up any Minister, and even every Favourite they have, rather than run any Hazard on their Account. Adultery, on the Wise's Part, is a Capital Crime, if the Husband will proceed against ther with the Rigor the Law allows; and the Man who is taken in this Crime with another's Wise may, on the Spot, take killed by the injur'd Husband.

TRADE.] England fends to Turky, Cloth, Stuffs, Perpetuanas, Haberdashers Wares, Coney-skins, Clock-work,
Tin, Lead, and some Iron; and the English Merchants frequently buy up French and Lishon Sugars, and transport thither, as well as Bullion from Cadiz; all carried in our own

Bottoms.

REVENUES.] To calculate exactly what Sums come into the Sultan's Treasure annually, is scarce practicable. As the Government is arbitrary, the Court can, in Cases of Necessity, command the Purses of every Subject; and it is not uncommon, when the Treasure is low, to borrow of the great Officers, who are known to abound in Wealth; but it is scarce ever return'd again, in which they acquiesce without murmuring, lest their Master should proceed to demand the Whole,

and perhaps their Heads with it.

Forces. The Militia of the Turkish Empire is of two Sorts; the first have certain Lands appointed for their Maintenance, and the other are paid out of the Treasury. Those that have certain Lands amount to about 268,451 Troopers, effective Men. Besides these, there are also certain auxiliary Forces raised by the tributary Countries of this Empire; as the Tartars, Walachians, Moldavians, &c. who are com-manded by their respective Princes. The Kan of the Crim Tartars is obliged to furnish 100,000 Men, and to serve in Person, when the Grand Seignior takes the Field; and the Princes of Meldavia and Walachia attend with about 6000 or 7000 Men each. In every War, belides the above Forces, there are great Numbers of Voluntiers, who live at their own Charge, in Expectation of succeeding the Zaims and Timariots. These Adventurers do not only promise themselves an Estate if they survive, but are taught, that if they die in a War against the Christians, they shall go immediately to Paradife. Those Forces which receive their pay from the R 2

Treasury are called the Spahis and Janizaries. The Spahis are in Number about 12,000. The Janizaries are esteem'd the best Soldiers in the Turkish Armies, and on them they principally depend in an Engagement; these amount to about 25,000 Men, who are quarter'd in and about Constantinople: They frequently grow mutinous, and have proceeded to far formetimes as to depose the Sultan. Besides the Janizaries of Constant in ple, every Province of the Empire is fill'd with Foot Soldiers, who bear

that Name, but these are not inroll'd with the others.

RELIGION.] The establish'd Religion of Turky in Europe is that of the Mahometan, so called from Mahomet the Au-They hold the Doctrine of Fate, yet allow of thor of it. future Rewards and Punishments; and that God Almighty will personally make every Man render an Account of his Actions; and that they shall be weighed in a Pair of Scales; and all those, whose good Actions outweigh their evil ones, shall go instantly into Paradise; but on the contrary, those whose evil Actions outweigh their good ones, shall go into Their Paradise is a Place of all manner of sensual Pleasure, which true Mussulmans, or Believers, are to pertake of. But those who are doomed to the Punishments of Hell, Mahamet affures us, will be tormented with unquenchable Fire, and boiling Water; and being burnt and reduced to Ashes, God Almighty will create them anew, that their Torments may endure to Eternity. They admit of Circumcifion, which they reckon necessary to Salvation. They fast, pray, and give Alms; and in these, perhaps, do not come far short of Christians in general.

Customs.] The usual Salutation among the Turks is, 2 little Inclination of the Head, and clapping the Right-hand to the Breast: But when they salute a Person of Distinction, they stoop so low, as to take up the Hem of his Vest, and kis it. They usually sit in an open Hall upon a Sopha, which is a Bench about five Foot broad, and a Foot and an half high, covered with Carpets and Cushions to lean on. Here they spread a Piece of Leather when they eat, and set little wooden Tables about half a Foot high, fometimes, upon which they place their Provisions. They have no Beds, but the Floor, or the Sopha, which serves them to lie upon \$ Their manly Exercises are shooting at a well as to eat on. Mark with Fire-arms, or Bows and Arrows, on Horseback in every Posture almost; and they are taught to dart a limb Staff, with which they attack and purfue one another on Horseback, and sometimes give and receive dangerous Bruis The Roads and Caravanseras for Entertainment of Travellers are kept in Repair in Turky, by the Contributions and Labours of private People, who look upon it to be a Work of Charity, and highly acceptable to Heaven, to provide for the Necessities of the wearied Traveller: Even those who live by their Labour, and have nothing else to contribute, will fpend Part of their Time gratis in these Employments. Marriage in Turky is of two Kinds, the one for Life, if there be no just Cause of Divorce, and the other temporary, and upon fuch Conditions as the Parties can agree on. As to Concubinage, or their Commerce with their Female Slaves, that they breed up or purchase, and with whom no Contracts are made these are not reckon'd among the Number of Wives. Of the first Sort of Wives, the Turks seldom take more than one, tho' they are allow'd four, unless upon the Account of advancing themselves by such Matches; for as these Wives are all equal, it feems almost impossible to avoid a perpetual Contention, where there are several of them in one House. But a Turk usually takes one of these to be Mistress of the Family; and, if their Fancy for Variety induces them to take more Females to their Bed, they purchase some beautiful Slaves in the Market, if there be none they like among their own. These Concubines are far from attempting to rival their Mistress, though they share with her in their Mafter's Bed; but pay her the greatest Respect, and wait upon her with uncommon Diligence. By a Sign, or a Nod, imperceptible to Strangers, every thing is transacted in a Family without Noise and Contradiction. But if insuperable Avertions, and intolerable Jars, sometimes happen, the Turks apply the common Remedy of a Divorce. As to the second Sort of Wives, those they contract with for a Time: This is usually done, where a Merchant or Traveller has Occasion to refide in some Place at a great Distance from home: In this Case, the Terms are agreed on before a Magistrate, and the Woman is taken to his Bed with very little Ceremony, and difmiffed with lefs.

Of ENGLAND.

O give a fatisfactory Account of Britain and Ireland, would take up too much Room for the Brevity of our Delign. We have therefore chosen to be entirely filent on this Head, rather than present our Readers with an Account, which must have been very impersect. We have however given a Lift of the several Counties of England and Wales, with their chief Towns, Square Miles, Distance and Bearing from day, and their Distance also from London in measured Miles.

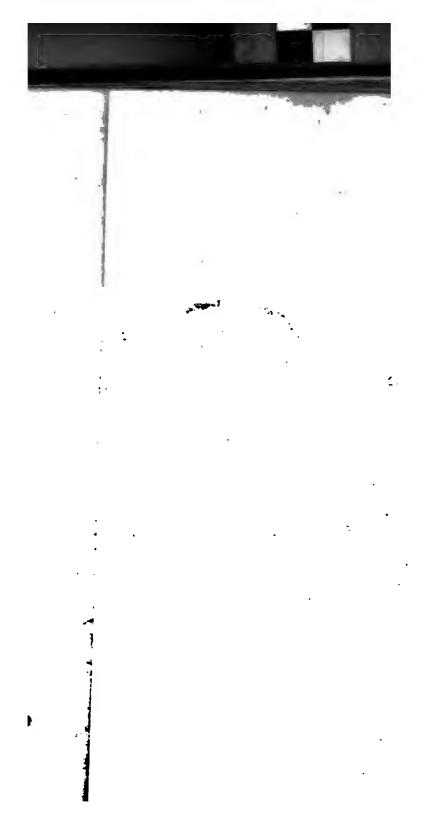
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Divition

Division of ENGLAND.	Square Miles.	Chief Towns.	Distance and Bear- ing from London.	Meafard Miles
Bedfordbire	323	Bedferd	40 N	47
Berkfeire	654	Reading	32 E	40
Buckingbamsbire	548	Buckingbam	44 NW	60
Cambridgeshire	708	Cambridge	44 N	52
Chefbire	894	Chefter	145 N W	181
Cornwall	1192	Lancefton	172 W	214
Cumberland	1292	Carlifle	235 N	308
Derbysbire	845	Derby	98 N W	112
Devensbire	2385	Exeter	138 W	172
Dorforfbire	959	Dorchefter	100 S W	113
Du-bam	758	Durbam	200 N	262
Effex	1540	Calchefter	43 N E	50
Gloucefterfoire	994	Gloucefter	81 W	102
Hamp/bire	1481	Winchester	54 S W	67
Herefordbire	820	Hereford	100 W	130
Hertfordbire	560	Heriford	zo N	23
Huntingdousbire	306	Huntingdon	48 N	57
Kent	550	Canterbury	43 B	56
Lancaftire	1429	Lancafter	187 N W	212
Leicester bire	695	Leicefter	78 N W	98
Lincolnsbire	2162	Lincoln	103 N	128
Middlefex	290	LONDON	,	
Monmouth/hire	422	Monmouth	roo W	127
Norfolk	1426	Norwich	90 NE	108
Northamptonskire	683	Northampton	54 N	66
Northumberland	1702	Newcafile	202 N	276
Notting bamfoire	694	Nettingbam	96 N	111
Oxfordbire	663	Oxford	47 NW	55
Rutlandfoire	136	Oakbam	74 N	94
Shropfhire	1106	Shrewfbury	124 NW	157
Somerfetfbire	1335	Taunton	120 W	146
Seaffordfbire	1006	Stafford	103 N W	133
Suffolk	1236	Ipfwich	60 NE	68
Surty	735	Guilford	25 S W	30
Suffer	1416	Chichefter	52 S W	6;
Warwicksbirg	832	Warwick	71 NW	88
Westmerland	633	Appleby	197 N	276
Wilefbire	1088	Salifoury	70 S W	85
Worcestersbire	671	Worcefter	87 N W	109
Yorkshire	4684	York	ISO N	100



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Bedfordbire	323	Bedford	40 N	47	
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Cambridgesbire	708	Cambridge	44 N	52	
Cheshire	894	Chefter	145 N W	18:	
Cornwall	1192	Lanceston	172 W	214	
Cumberland	1292	Carlifle	235 N	308	
Derby/bire	845	Derby	98 N W	122	
Devenshire	2385	Exeter	138 W	172	
Dorfetsbire	959	Dorchefter	100 S W	123	
Durbam	758	Durbam	200 N	262	
Effex	1540	Colchefter	43 N E	50	
Gloucestersbire	994	Gloucester	81 W	102	
Hampsbire	1481	Winchester	54 S W	67	
Herefordsbire	820	Hereford	100 W	130	
Hertfordbire	560	Hertford	zo N	23	
Huntingdonsbire	306	Huntingdon	48 N	57	
Kent	550	Canterbury	43 B	56	
Lancastire	1429	Lancaster	187 N W	232	
Leicefter bire	695	Leicefter	78 N W	98	
Lincolnfoire	2162	Lincoln	103 N	128	
Middlesex	290	LONDON	1		
Monmouth/bire	422	Monmouth	too W	127	
Norfolk	1426	Norwich	90 N E	108	
Northampton/hire	683	Northampton	54 N	66	
Northumberland	1702	Newcafile	202 N	276	
Nottingbamsbire	694	Nottingbam	96 N	122	
Oxfordfbire	663	Oxford	47 N W	55	
Rutlandsoire	136	Oakbam	74 N	94	
Shropfhire	1106	Shrewfoury	124 NW	157	
Somersetsbire	1335	Taunton	120 W	140	
Staffordfbire	1006	Stafford	103 N W	133	
Suffolk	1236	Ipfwich	60 NE	68	
Surry	735	Guilford	25 S W	30	
Suffer	1416	Chichefter	52 S W		
Warwicksbirs	832	Warwick	71 N W	88	
Westmorland	633	Appleby	197 N	276	
Willsbire	1088	Salifbury	70 S W		
Worcestershire	671	Worcefter	87 N W	109	
Yorkhire	4684	York	heo N	360 (-1	





rifion of FLAND.	Square Miles.	Chief Towns.	Distance and Bearing from Lendon.	Meafur'd Miles.
d L E S. y Isle	- 10	Beaumaris	184.N W	
wkfbire	248	Brecknock	104-14 W	
engoire	770	C	124 W	160
aufbire	646	Cardigan	162 W	214
rtbenfbire	869	Carmarthen	175 W	228
vansbire	459	Carnarvan	200 N W	258
bfbire	509	Denbigh	160 N W	'2c9
ire	198	Flint	148 N W	
gansbire	6 70	Cardiff	126 W	163
ethfoire	620	Harlegb	160 N W	
merzhire	695	Moutgomery	122 N W	158
skefbire	520	Pembroke	195 W	.254
fire	385	Radner	ti3 W	151
r Islands are,		İ		1
Ife of Man	160	Castle Town	210 N W	1
of Wight	150	Newport	72 S W	1
9	43	St. Hilary	152 S W	'
rafey	50	St. Peters	145 S W	1
	7	1	1 28 S W	1
rates	31		141 S W	
•	. ,.	•	• •	•

A S I A.

Of TURKY in ASIA.

and pestilentious. It has been esteemed a national representation of the Provinces very such pestilentious. It has been esteemed a national representation of the part of the province lies unmanured at present, and the Towns in a sin other Parts of Turky. The Produce of Natolia consists in Silks, Goats Hair, Twisted Cotton, Cordon several Colours, Calicuts White and Blue, Wool for several Colours, Calicuts White and Blue, Wool for several Colours, Calicuts White and Blue, Wool for several Colours, Calicuts White and Blue, Wool for several Colours, Calicuts White and Blue, Wool for several Colours, Colicuts White and Blue, Wool for several Colours, Calicuts White and Blue, Wool for several Colours, Calicuts White and Blue, Wool for several Colours, Calicuts White and Blue, Wool for several Colours, Color Several Color Several Color Several Color Several Color Several Color Several Color Several Color Several Color Several Color Several Color Several Color Several Color Several Color Several Color Several Color Several Color Several Color Several Color Se

The Air of Syria proper is healthful and very Spria proper. temperate, and the Soil deep, level, and fruitful, producing Corn, Grapes, Figs, Oranges, Lemons, Dates, Medicinal Herbs, Silk, and other valuable Commodities. The Soil and Climate of Palestine were incomparably fruitful and pleasant, as we are inform'd in Holy Writ; but at present it is so ill cultivated, that, Palefine. except a few Figs. Pomegranates. Palm-trees, Oranges, and some Wines, which grow in the Valleys, there remains none of that ancient Plenty. Diarbeck in general. enjoys a good Temperature of Air, and the Soil Diarbeck. also is very rich and fruitful, capable of producing the Necessaries of Life in abundance, if properly. cultivated. The Soil of Eyraca, or Chalden, or Eyraca, er Babylonia, was anciently so fertile, that according Chaldea. to Herodotus, it yielded 200 fold and upwards. The

Blades of Wheat and Barley were four Fingers broad, as the fame Author affirms: And by Pliny it is said of the Belyknians, that they mowed their Corn twice, and feeded it a third time, or it would be nothing but Blades. But the in general the Country was extreamly fruitful, delightful, and healthful, yet, in some Places, it was cover'd with a slimy Matter, which the Overflowing of the Water, and the Nature of the Soil together, produced in abundance: This slimy Matter, it feems, they used instead of Mortar, than which nothing could be more durable and binding. The Nature of this once generally happy Soil is still such, that, if the like Care and Diligence were used, it would produce the Necessaries of Life in surprifing Abundance. There are numerous Herds of Cattle still 4. fed in the Pastures, and thence great Plenty of Milk and : Butter. The Fruitfulness and Delights of this once famous Country were fuch, that herein Divines have placed the Garden of Eden, or the Habitation of the first Man, Adam, at his Creation. However, there is no Part of the World where the Fruits of the Earth are more subject to be destroyed by Locusts, than in the Territories of Bassera, or the Southern Part a of this fruitful Country. Mr. Taverner relates, that, when be was at that City, there flew by twice such a prodigious Number of Locusts, that they appeared at a Distance like a Cloud. and darkened the Air. They pass over Bassora generally four or five times in a Year, being driven into the Defert by the Wind; they die there, or they would destroy all the Corn and Herbage in Chalden. Add to this, that towards Baffere the hot Winds have terrible Effects upon the Inhabitants: For the East Wind, blowing over a large Tract of parched Easts.: occasions the Air to be intolerably hot, and thereupon being

G E O G R A P H Y, &c.

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iftempers on the Natives. Curdiftan or Affria is a very t and fruitful Country, diversified with Hills alleys: The Hills are adorned with the Cardiffan, or Oaks, and great Variety of other Timber Affria.

uit-trees. The Valleys are well watered, ir excellent Grain where they are cultivated; but being the Dominion of the slothful Turk, or, which is the thing, being a frontier Country between Turky and there is very little of it manured. However there the Flocks and Herds fed in this Country, the Owners in Tents like the Arabs. Galls and Tobacco are the al Produce of the Soil at present; but, it seems, it is fit thing, it being very deep: There are abundance of rds; however they make no Wine, but dry their

Soil of Mingrelia is diversified with Hills, Mountains, i, and Plains, but over-run with Woods, it here-and-there cultivated. The natural mingrelia. is but small for want of Tillage; and

there are all kinds of Fruits that are found in England, owing wild, they have little Taste, and breed Diseases. ine alone yields its Fruit to Perfection, though it be left itself round the Bodies of Trees; and, did the People and the true Art of making Wine, that of this Counald be the best in the World; for as it is, with their g, 'tis pleasant to the Taste, good in the Stomach, and rong Body. This Country abounds with Water: Rivers fall down from Mount Caucasus, which render ound very damp. Wheat and Barley, and some Rice, ere, but in small Quantities, and is only used by the Sort. They have Beeves and Hogs in Plenty, wild Stags, and other Venison, excellently good; as also ges, Quails, Pheasants, and other Wild Fowl in Plenhey have also Falcons, and even Eagles and Pelicans hither from Mount Caucasus; whence also they are ses visited by Lions, Leopards, Tygers, Wolves, and

t of many other Parts of Arabia, chiefly of fandy Deferts, craggy Mountains, and

Sands: But this Country is in some measure better ed in the inland Parts, and more travelled through on of Trade. The Sca-coasts and Banks of Rivers in-Fruits, as Aloes, roducing aromatick Plants, and de-Fruits, as Aloes, Cassia, Spikenard, Cardamum, Cin-Pepper, Dates, Oranges, Lemons, &c. Frankincense, Myrrh,

Myrrh, and other valuable Gums: They have great Plenty of Honey and Wax. The Air of this Country in the Sunmer is exceeding hot, especially in the inland Parts, and towards the East; the Heavens being feldom or never overcan with Clouds.

Georgia is a mountainous woody Country, which has protected it from absolute Conquest. The Soil is very fertile in Grain; the Fruits are excellent, Georgia. and of divers Sorts; no Place in Europe produces better Pears and Apples; nor are finer Pomegranates feen in any Part of Afia. There are also abundance of Cattle, Venison, and Wild Fowl of all Sorts; also great Plenty of Fish. The Wine is so rich, that the King of Perfia has always of it for his own Drinking. Silk is also produced, but not in that Plenty Travellers talk of. The Air of this Country is generally very pleafant, healthful, and temperate. Chafiftan, or Sufiana, enjoys so pure an Air, that, towards the

Eaftern Parts, the Stars shine with such Lufter, Chufiftan, or that one Man may know another very well by their Light: There are very feldom any Hum-Sufrana. canes or Tempests, and very little Thunder and

Lightning; nor is it subject to Earthquakes. The Air, in the most Eastern Parts, is so extremely dry in the fair Season, the least Dew or Moisture is not found on any thing that is laid abroad all Night, or even on the Grass; and it very seldom rains in the Winter, except towards the Southern Parts of this Province. The Province of Adirbeitzan, or Media Mojes enjoys a pure healthful Air, a temperate Climate, and a most prolific Soil. The Soil of Erivas a

Adirbeitzan or Media Major.

much encumbered with Mountains; however Valleys are fertile and delightful, producing Erivan. Fruits, Wine, and Corn in abundance; also vol good Pasturage. The Island of Cyprus was Cyprus.

merly a rich and flourishing Country, producing Wine, Oil, Corn, Sugar, Cotton, Honey, Wool, Meals, fome Silk; great Plenty of Flesh, Fish, and Fowl: They have feveral Kinds of Earth here fit for the Painter's Uic, Fig. ticularly Red, Yellow, and Black, and many other uted Commodities: The Air of this Country is, for the most parts hot, and dry, and not very healthful: But the greatest locos venience which Cyprus is subject to, is those Swarms of Locusts which visit them in the hot Scason, appearing like Clouds at a little Distance; and were they not driven in the Sea, by a North Wind, which happens about that Took would devour all the Fruits of the Earth. The Air of the

Hland of Rhodes is very healthful, and the Country exceeding pleasant, adorned with Trees and Herbage always green; and a Day scarce ever happens, it is said, Rhodes. wherein the Sun does not shine upon them. Their

Wines are much admired; and the Country affords such Plensty of all Things besides, which can render Life agreeable, that it gave Occasion to the Fiction of Golden Showers. Indeed they do not abound in Corn, but then they are well supplied with it from the neighbouring Continent of Natolia.

The Island of Lange affords a pleasant Prospect tas we approach it, being for the most part, a fine Lange.

level Country, but rifing gradually into Hills to-

wards the East, from whence there fall several little Rivulets into the Plain, which make the Soil extremely fruitful. The Wines of this Island are much admired at Rome. Here are also great Plenty of Cypress and Turpentine-trees, and many other beautiful and medicinal Plants. The Island of

Sames in general enjoys a healthful Air, except in fome few Places; and it is observed here, as

in most other Islands of the Levant, that they seldom have any Rain, Thunder, or tempessuous Weather, but in Winter; whereas, in our Climate, we have most Thunder in Summer, and the heaviest Showers. This Island is encumbered with Mountains, Rocks, and Precipices; but the Plains are fruitful and pleasant. The Mountains are covered with Pine-trees; and they have a sufficient Quantity of Wines, Olives, Pomegranates, Mulberry-trees, Figs, Corn, Honey, Wax, Scammony, &c. Their Muscadine Wine is much admired by Travellers, and their Silk is sine. They have considerable Herds of Cattle, Oxen, Sheep, Goats, Deer, Wild Hogs, Hags, Partridges, and other Game, in great Plenty. The Island of Scio is a rocky mountainous

Country, without any Rivers or Springs but what same dried up in a hot Summer; when Turks, Scio.

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Manchquakes. This Country does not produce Corn enough that the Use of the Inhabitants, but they have plenty of it from Matteria: Scio has great Plenty of Wine: Virgil and Horace Inhabitant it as the best Wine in Greece; and Cossar regal'd his Pelends with it in his Triumphs, and Sacrifices to Jupiter and other Gods. They have Olives in Scio; and, notwithmenting great Part of the Island is a barren Rock, yet, in the Places, there are abundance of Orange, Citron, Multiply, Pomegranate, and Turpentine-trees; and there is the

best Mastick in the World. Among their Fruits we must not forget their Figs, of which they make Brandy, and export great Quantities to their Neighbours. The Partridges of this Island are much taken notice of by Travellers; every Village has a Servant who leads a great many hundred Brace of them into the Fields in a Morning; and, upon his Call, they come together again in the Evening, and return to their respective Masters. The Island of Meteline not only produces good Corn, but is still remarkable for its excellent Wine; the

Meteline. Soil also produces very good Oil, and Figs, and Pine-trees which produce black Pitch.

REVENUES.]
FORCES.]
RELIGION.]
CUSTOMS.]
See these under the Article, Turky in Escape.

Of ARABIA.

is very hot during the Summer, the Heavens being seldom overcast; but it is more temperate towards the Southern Parts, being qualified by refreshing Dews, which frequently sall there. In the Northern Parts are sound neither Men nor Beasts, Birds or Trees, Grass or Pastures, and nothing to be seen but rolling Sands, or craggy Mountains; the Rivers are but sew in Number, and those shallow and small, and Rain is seldom seen there. But the Sea Coasts, and Banks of Rivers, in the Southern Parts, or Arabia Felix, afford a better Soil: There the Ground yields Aromatic Plants, and delicious Fruits, Aloes, Cassia, Spikenard, Cardamum, Cinnamon, Pepper, Dates, Oranges, Lemons, &c. Frankincense, Myrrh, and other valuable Gums.

GOVERNMENT.] The Inland Country is under the Government of abundance of petty Arabian Princes, who march from Place to Place, and encamp according as they find Water, and Pasture for their Cattle. As to the Form of Government and Laws, what I can learn of them is, that the Princes of the Kingdoms lying upon the Coasts are absolute, both in Spirituals and Temporals, and the Succession hereditary; that they have no other Laws than what are to be sound in the Alcoran, and the Comments upon it. The Princes lying near Turky are tributary to the Turk; but it is certain they receive large Gratuities from this Monarch, for protecting the Pilgrims that pass through their Country: And the

Grand Seignior is always glad to have a good Understanding with them; for it is in their Power to do his Subjects a great deal of Mischief, by their Excursions and Robberies, and very difficult to punish them for it: For though the Arabians are mot a Match for the Turk in open Field, yet it would destroy the best Armies to pursue them through their Deserts, where there are no Towns, no Provisions, and where there is scarce any Water to be met with, and the Heat insupportable to any but the Natives; and this is the true Reason, that the greatest Part of Arabin was never conquer'd.

REVENUES.] As to the Revenues, 'tis faid, the Kings command the Purses of their Subjects as the Necessity of Affairs

requires.

CHARACTER.) The Arabians are said to be brave, of a civil and honest Deportment to all Sorts of People; but this is meant of those near Muscat. For the Natives in general of the other Parts of Arabia are not more taken notice of for their Rambling from Place to Place, than they are for their Thieving. which is both by Sea and Land; and that not in small Parties only, but by public Authority, in a manner, with their Princes at the Head of them.

RELIGION.] The fober Part of the Arabians profess the

Doctrine of Mahomet.

Customs.] There are no Roads laid out in this Country, but the Caravans travel over fandy Deserts, where there is no manner of Track, guiding themselves Travelling.

by a Compass, as at Sea, or else by the Stars;

for they travel chiefly in the Night, on account of the Heats. People choose to travel with the Caravans, in which are freseently two or three hundred Men, and, perhaps, a thousand seeds of all Kinds, in order to secure themselves from the thievish Arabs. There are no Wheel Carriages in this Country; all their Merchandizes are loaden upon Camels or Dromisedaries; both which will kneel down to take up their Burilen, and will, upon Occasion, travel five or fix Days withdrinking. Here are no Inns to bait at, but those who stavel with the Caravans carry their Provisions and Tents with bem. They also carry Water with them; for sometimes by do not meet with any in several Days travelling. It is an Observation among the Arabs, that wherever there are Trees, Water is not far off; and when they draw near a Pool, their mels will smell it at a Distance, and set up their great Trot till come to it.

At Mecca is a Tertifo Mosque, so gloridateliest of any in the World ; tute which

which every Mussulman is obliged, by the Mahometan Reigion, to come once in his Life-time, or send a Deputy. At Medina is also a stately Mosque, supported by two Pillars, and furnished with 300 Silver Lamps, and call'd by the Turks, Most Holy, because in it is the Cossin of their Prophet Mahomet, cover'd with Cloth of Gold, under a Canopy of Cloth of Silver, curiously embroider'd.

Of PERSIA.

CLIMATE.] DERSIA extending from the 25th to the 45th Deg. of Latitude, it is very reasonable to suppose, that the Air and Seasons are very different. In the Middle of the Kingdom their Winter begins in November, and continues till March, with severe Frosts, and Snow, which falls in great Abundance on their Mountains, but not so much in the Champain Country; from the Month of March till May, the Wind is usually high; and from thence to September they have a calm ferene Heaven, without so much as a Cloud; and though it be pretty hot in the Day-time, the refreshing Breezes, which blow conflantly Morning and Evening, as well as in the Night, make the Summer very tolerable, especially since the Nights are ten Hours long. The Air is so pure, and the Stars shine with that Lustre, that People travel much more in the Night, than in the Day. In this Part of Persia there are very seldom any Hurricanes or Tempests, and very little Thunder and Lightning; nor is it subject to Earthquakes; and the Air is so extremely dry in the fair Season, that there is not the least Dew, or Moisture, on any thing that is laid abroad all Night, or even on the Grass; and it very seldom rains in the Winter. No Country is more healthful than the Heart of Persia, as appears by the hale Complexion of the Natives. The Air in the Southern Part of Perfia, particularly about Gambron, is very unhealthful in the Spring and Fall: The European Factors scarce ever pass 2 Year without a dangerous Fit of Illness, which frequently carries them off. The Months of June, July, and August, are healthful enough, but so very hot, that both Natives and Foreigners get up into the Mountains at that Time.

GOVERNMENT.] The King of Persia is an absolute Monarch, and has the Lives and Estates of his Subjects entirely at his Disposal: There is no Prince in the World more implicitly obey'd, let his Orders be never so unjust; nothing can save the greatest Subject, if he determines to deprive him of his Life or Estate. The Crown of Persia is hereditary, but the

Femiles

Females are excluded: However, the Son of a Daughter may inherit, though his Mother could not. What seems most partcular in the Laws of Succession in Persia is, that a blind Man shall not inherit; and as those Males who proceed from the Female Branches, are as capable of succeeding as those who derive themselves from the Males, that cruel Policy of putting out the Eyes of all that are allied to the Crown, is executed upon every Male of the Royal Family, whether they proceed from Sons or Daughters. The Person the King pitches upon to execute this cruel Order, is not allowed to do it by holding a hot Iron to the unhappy Childrens Eyes, but the very Eyeballs are scoped clean out with the Point of a Knife, by which the poor Children are put to inexpressible Torture, and sometimes lose their Lives under the Hand of these Butchers. The Perfians pretend to excuse this barbarous Practice of putting out the Eves of the Royal Children, by telling us, that it prevents all Disputes about the Succession, and a great deal of Bloodshed; and that they are much more merciful than their Neighbours the Turks, who distroy every Branch of the Royal Family.

TRADE.] The Staple Commodity of *Persia* is Silk, raw and wrought, of which great Quantities are exported to *India*, *Turky*, and *Moscovy*; and formerly the *English* and *Dutch* took a great deal off their Hands, but little or none at this

Day.

REVENUES.] What the Revenue of the Crown may amount to in the Whole, is very uncertain, it depending so much upon Casualties. Those who have attempted to calculate it say, that, one Year with another, the Revenues amount to 4,000,000 Pounds Sterl, which, considering that their Troops are most of them paid by other Means, is a very considerable Sum; but then, as the Splendor and Magnissence of the Perfan Court is much beyond any thing we have in Europe, possibly very little of it may remain in the Treasury, at the Year's End.

Forces] The Army of Perfia was never large, confidering the Extent of the Kingdom. All as the Great, who made fuch confiderable Conquetts, had never more than 120,000 Men in his Service at once, in all the Provinces of

his Kingdom.

RELIGION.] The Inhabitants in general are strict Followers of Mahomet's Doctrine, as explained and interpreted by Haly, the Nephew and Son-in-law of Mahomet, and one of his Successors in the Empire. But the Persians and Turks differ as much about the Interpretation of the Alcoran, as they do about the Successors of Mahomet. There are many Nesto-

Nesserian Christians in Persia; as also several Jesuits, and many Jews. The Christian Religion was first planted in this County

by St. Thomas.

The usual Salute in Persia is by bowing the Customs.] Body a little, and clapping the Right-hand to their Breaft; but they never stir their Cap or Turbant: Before the King, the great Men bow their Faces three times to the Ground, when they approach him. As to Europeans, if they are not clothed in the Persian Dress, they expect their Hats, and the same Reverence they shew to Men of Quality in their own Country. There are no Exercises which the Persians endervour more diligently to accomplish themselves in, than the Bow, and Horsemanship. Their greatest Kings have thought proper to be Witnesses of the Address and Activity of their Subjects, and frequently themselves have contended for the Prize. They begin with teaching the young Pupils to bend the Bow; afterwards he is taught to floot forwards, backwards, fideways, and almost in every Posture; after this, they bring him to shoot at a Mark, and to deliver his Arrows without shaking. The next Thing they teach the Pupils is to mount a Horse cleverly, to have a good Seat, to gallop with a loose Rein, to stop short, and turn swiftly to the Right or Left, upon the least Signal, without being disorder'd in the Saddle.

CURIOSITIES.] About 30 Miles North-East of Gombron, is a most hideous Cave, which, for its frightful Appearance, is called The Gate of Hell. There are yet to be seen the noble Remains of the samous Palace of Persepolis: Those Pillars now standing are of excellent Marble, and about 15 Feet high: Even Rome itself, as 'tis said, has nothing comparable to these venerable Remains of Antiquity: This glorious Palace, or Temple, with the whole City of Persepolis, the noblest and wealthiest City in the World, was burnt to the Ground by Alexander the Great.

The Contain

Of INDIA.

CLIMATE.] THE Northern Part of India is temperate; but towards the South this Country is subject to Heats, which would be intolerable, if it were not for the set Seasons of Rain and Wind, with which the Countries lying in the Torrid Zone are cooled and resressed. The regular Winds, which are call'd Monsons, are observed to blow constantly six Months one Way, and six Months another; namely, from April to October, or thereabouts, they blow

the South-west; and from October to April, from the h-east, not exactly from those Points, but vary somea Point or two on either Side. At the breaking up of r of these Monsoons, or a little before they shift, there are ly prodigious Storms of Wind, such as we do not expee in this Part of the World, once in a great many Years. shifting of the Monsoons, and consequently the Storms, not happen exactly at the fame Time every Year, but times a Fortnight or three Weeks sooner, and, at other , a Fortnight or three Weeks later, than the usual time, h frequently occasions the Loss of Shipping. Besides Winds we call Monsoons, they have Land and Sea zes, which shift once in twelve Hours, when the Monare not violent; for then the Breezes give way to the

OVERNMENT.] Malacca, Cambodia, and Laos, lately be-: Provinces, and great Part of them tributary Siam, Mae King of Siam; but the remote Provinces lacca, Camlately thrown off their Allegiance, and are bodia, and fet up for petty Sovereigns. Siam has suf-

many Revolutions, according to Loubiere; King's Father, who possessed the Throne when he was , was an Usurper, and not so much as of the Royal Fa-, this Rebel having dragg'd his unfortunate Sovereign out e Temple, whither he was fled for Refuge, and afterwards gled him. This Usurper reigned thirty Years, and was eded by his Brother, to the Exclusion of the Usurper's

The Kings of Siam formetimes starve their Relations, it them to other Deaths: Indeed they are sometimes so iful, that they only burn their Eyes out, or cripple them, revent their aspiring to the Throne. The Government onquin is one of the oddest we have heard

Tonquin. for the rightful Prince, it seems, enjoys little than the Title of King; the General, or

e Minister, is Master of all the Treasure and Forces of Kingdom, and to him the Subjects make their Court; hus it has been for the last hundred Years. As to Pegu, Asem, and many inland Parts of India, we have very

rfect Accounts of them. In the Dominions ging to the Great Mogul, some Malefactors sang'd, others beheaded, some impaled on Stakes, fome torn in Pieces by wild Beafts, or by Elephants, and others bitten by Snakes. If

lephant be commanded to dispatch a Criminal immediate-: stamps upon the Wretch, who lies trembling before him,

Punisbments in the Great Magul's Dominions.

with his broad round Foot, and crushes him to Death in a Moment; if it be intended he should feel his Death, and die in Torture, the Elephant breaks first the Bones of his Legs, then his Thighs and Arms, and leaves him to die by the Wounds he has given him. Sir Thomas Roe relates, that, when he was at the Mogul's Court, a hundred Thieves were brought before that Monarch, he ordered the chief of them to be torn in Picces by Dogs, and the rest to be put to Death in the ordinary Way: Accordingly the Prisoners were divided into several Quarters of the Town and the chief of them was torn to Picces by twelve Dogs; and thirteen of his Gang, at the same Place, had their Heads tied down to their Feet, and their Necks being chopped half off with a Sword, were left naked and bloody in the Street, where they became a

The Megal's Harem or Seraglio, as it is Women of the Haram or Seraglio, as it is ufually called, are either Wives or Concubines, Princesses of the Blood, Governantes, or Slaves.

Those that are called Wives, and contracted with Ceremony, feldom exceed four. The Number of Concubines is very un-

certain, but it is generally agreed they amount to about 1000. The first Son the Great Mogul has by any of his Wives, is look'd upon to be Heir to the Empire; though the longelt Sword usually carries it; and whoever possesses himself of the Throne, commonly destroys all his Brothers, and their Male The Number of Jewels, and precious Stones, which, 'tis faid, the Ladies of the Seraglio wear, exceeds all Belief. The Governances of the young Princesses, and those who are Spies upon the Conduct of the King's Women, are a confiderable Body in the Seraglio; and, 'tis faid, have a great Share in the Government of the Empire. If this Monarch has any Council, it is composed of these Ladies; for it is by their Influence the great Offices of State and Governments are disposed of, and all Butiness of Consequence is effected; these Ladies having better Opportunities of representing Things to the Emperor, than his Ministers have without This Prince is ferved altogether by Women in his Retirement, and has a Guard, 'tis faid, of Tartar Women, arm'd with Scymetars and Bows, who have the Care of his The Government of the Great Mogul is very tyrannical, having both the Purses and Persons of his Subjects wholly at his Disposal: His bare Will is the Law, and his Word a final Decision of all Controversies. His Letters and Orders are received with the utmost Reverence: for the Governor, to whom they are fent, having Intelligence they

are upon the Road, rides out with all his Officers to meet the Messenger who brings them: He no sooner sees the Packet. but he alights from his Horse, and falls down on his Face to the Earth; then he takes them from the Messenger, and lays them upon his Head, whereon he binds them fast; and returning back to the Court where he usually dispatches his Business, he reads them. This mighty Monarch shews himself to the People three times a Day; the first is at Sun-rising from a Gallery, at which time Crouds of People resort thither, to give him the usual Salam, crying out, as soon as they fee him, Long Life and Health to the Great King. At Noon he shews himself again; and, lastly, at about Sun-set; being always usher'd in and out with Drums, Trumpets, and other Wind-Music; and at any of these times, if any Man, tho' never so mean, has a Petition to the Emperor, it is received. This Monarch administers Justice himself in capital Cases, as his Viceroys do in their respective Provinces. The King of Siam, according to the Custom of the East, is an absolute Monarch; he gives the Land to whom he pleafes, and takes it away when he will:

Wherefore no Families can be ennobled by Estates; nor is there any Nobility but by Offices, which the King confers and takes away at Pleasure; whence tis not uncommon to see the Son of a Lord tugging at the Oar. Only one of the King's Women has the Flonour of being called Queen; and for the Seraglio they take the Daughter of any Subject. The

Laws of Siam require an unlimited Obedience to

Parents; any one who should prefume to oppose and contradict his Parents, would be looked on as

a Monster. Lying is punish'd by sewing up the Mouth. Sometimes Criminals are tossed by one Elephant to another, without killing them; for this, 'tis said, the Elephants will do upon a Sign, they are so extremely tractable. But their Punishment is usually adapted to the Crime: One who has been guilty of Extortion has melted Gold or Silver pour'd down his Throat.

Forces.] The Army of the Great Mogul confifts, 'tis faid, of 300,000 Horse, and 400,000 Foot, beside 3000 Elephants: But, according to the best Accounts, there is allow'd Pay for a Million of Horse; not that the whole Number is ever brought into actual Service; for the respective Vicesoys seldom keep up above half the Number, and the Pay of the rest goes into their own Pockets. Notwithstanding the Great Mogul has such a vast Extent of Sea Coast,

is no such thing as a Man of War, or a Ship of Force,

to be found in *India*; not but the *India* Merchants have Ships of 400 or 500 Tun of their own, built after the *English* Model; but their Sailors would make but a poor Defence, if they should be attacked; and their Skill in Navigation is very mean, infomuch that they are glad when they can find an *European* Commander. An *English* Sailor, with very ordinary Qualifications, serves for a Captain of one of the Mogul's Mer-

chant Ships.

CHARACTER.] The Indians are of a good Stature, wellshaped, and agreeable Features; and it is generally observed, that there are hardly any deformed or crooked People amongs them. Those that inhabit the Northern Parts of this Empire, are of a deep tawny Complexion; and those in the South as black as Jet; those of the Mountains, in the middle Parts of the Peninsula, are all Coal-black to a Man: Indeed the Indians on the Coast, who are mixed with the Particula, and other Europeans, are generally of an Olive-colour; but in any Part of the Country, the Natives have long black Hair, and black Eyes, let their Complexion be what it will. The · Indians are to be diffinguished into Moors or Mogals, and Pagans or original Indians. The Moors or Moguls are a Minture of Tartars, Persians, Arabs, and almost every Mahamtan Nation. These having the Power in their Hand behave like Lords of the Country, and treat the ancient Inhabitants with some Contempt, and seem to have still a greater Contempt, or rather Aversion, to all Christians in general, though they are serviceable to the Moguls as Engineers, Mathematicians, &c. and frequently give great Pay to those who The Siamese are of a small Stature, but into their Service. well-proportioned; their Complexions are very Natives of fwarthy, and the Faces of both Men and Wo-Siam. men are of the broadest, with high Cheek-bones dark small Eyes, large Mouths, and thick pale Lips, the Nofes, and round at the End, and large Ears. The Sie have a ready and clear Conception, and their Repartees and quick and very smart; they imitate any thing at Sight very well; and are neither lascivious or intemperate, nor will was ton Discourse pass for Wit, or be taken for Sublimity Genius. Drinking strong Liquors is counted infamous mongst them, and Adultery is hardly heard of at & They are polite and courteous, and their Minds are as as their Heaven, having the good Fortune to have the mand of their Passions. They are great Lovers of Wives and Children, and as well beloved by them; Children are faid to be exceeding engaging, and of a

Temper. The Tonquinese are of a middle Stature, and clean-limbed; their Nose and Lips are proportionable and well-made, but their Faces are a little flattish and of an oval Form. The People are courteous and obliging to Strangers, especially the trading Part of them, and mighty sair Dealers. However, the Magifirates are said to be proud and imperious; their Soldiery infolent; and their Poor, who are very numerous, given to thieving. They are reckoned very ingenious and diligent; patient in Adversity; universally addicted to Gaming from the highest to the lowest, from which nothing can restrain

them. RELIGION.] The original Natives of India, who are by far the most numerous, are Idolaters: There are reckoned three or sourscore several Tribes or Casts among these Pagans, but the chief are the Bramins, the Rajaputans or Fashboots, and the Banians or Chontres. The Bramins teach, that there is but one God infinitely perfect, and that their Images represent fome Heroes, and virtuous Persons, who formerly dwelt on the Earth, and are now exalted to Heaven, where they apprehend them to be Mediators for them, which is the Reafon they give for paying their Devotion before these Images. They have some confused Notion of the Creation, and Defiruction of Mankind by a Flood: They believe a pre-existent State, and that the good and bad Fortune we meet with in this World, is either a Reward or Punishment for what we have done in a former; and those who behave themselves well in this Life, shall be rewarded in another The Siamese believe the Form of the Siamese.

World only to be eternal; all visible Objects they look upon as so many rational Beings, who have lived and existed in a former State, and must die and revive again; and that the Heavens, the Earth, 'Plants, and all Things else, have their Period, and will be succeeded by new Heavens, and a new Earth, &c. They allow the Soul to be material, and yet will not admit, that it is perishable; but that it animates some other Creature, and knows Pain or Pleasure according to its deserving, till it enters a human Body again, whose Circumstances will be suitable to the Behaviour of the Soul in its several Transmigrations.

CUSTOMS.] The general Dress of the Indians is a white Vest of Calico, Silk, or Muslin, which folds over before, and is tied with Strings either on the Right or Left Side; the Sleeves are close to their Arms; Habit. and are so long, that they six in Wrinkles about

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the Wrist; the upper Part is close to their Bodies, and shews their Shape; from the Middle downwards it is gathered, and fits full in Plaits, reaching a little below their Knees. The usual Compliment in India is the lifting the Right-hand to the Head, and fometimes both; The usual and, if it be to a Person of Distinction, bowing Compliments. the Body a little. When the Mahometans meet, the usual Compliment is, God give you Health, or, I wish you the Prayers of the Poor: The deep Compliment to a Prince, is bowing the Body low, putting the Hand down to the Ground, then to the Breast, and afterwards lifting it up to the Head, and this repeated three times. Upon a Visit, the Person visited does not move to meet his Guest, but intreats him to sit down by him on the Carpet: They are very referv'd, feldom or never talking fast or loud. Tumblers and Jugglers go from Town to Town as in other Countries, and are Diversions. fo dextrous in their Tricks, that some of our own Countrymen have imputed them to Magic, and the Power of the Devil. One of the Great Mogul's favourite Diversions is the Fighting of Elephants, and other wild Beafts; and the feeing Men engage with Lions and Tygers. The Roads are generally a deep Sand, which is Way of fo hot in the fair Season about Noon, that it Travelling. would burn their Feet, if they were not as hard as a Shoe-fole; and there is no fuch thing as walking in the Sand with Shoes on. When a Man of Substance travels, he usually hires ten or twelve Chairmen to carry

his Palanquin, which is a well-contriv'd Couch with Pillows, and an arched Canopy over it: In these they sit or lie, as they think fit; and it is carried by four of the Men at a time, two before, and two behind, who lay the Pole upon their Shoulders; and run at the rate of four or five Miles an Hour, their Fellows relieving them at certain times without standing still. A little before they delign to bait, some of the Men are sent to the Villages, where they buy Provisions, and they dress it as they go along. Oxen are used to ride on, as well as for Burdens; they will trot on at a pretty round rate, and sometimes they run Races with them. It is very troublesome travelling in the rainy scason, the flat Countries being overflowed, and innumerable Torrents falling from the Mountains; but this does not hinder the common People from taking Journeys at this Time of the Year; for they will take Water without any Difficulty, and swim with incredible Strength acros

rose broad Rivers, which run very fwiftly. As to the Marages of the Indians, the Fathers make the Barain before the young People come to the Use of Marriages. reir Reason; nor does either the Boy or the Girl, then they come of Age, ever imagine they have any Right dispute the Matter, but look upon themselves as much bliged to obey their Parents in this Particular, as in any ther Command: However, the young Man, if he does not ke the Girl his Father has provided him, may take anther, and have as many Concubines as he pleases; but the Voman has no Remedy, and if the murmur at her Husband's conduct, he may reduce her to the Condition of a Slave. hey constantly marry into their own Tribe or Cast; a Merhant must marry into a Merchant's Family, a Smith into a mith's, a Carpenter into a Carpenter's, and so of every ther Trade or Profession. The Wives never bring any other 'ortune than their Clothes; and among those who are realthy, it is faid, the Father of the Husband advances a onfiderable Sum to the Wife's Friends; and, 'tis thought, ever exts with the Husband, but waits till he has done. ndians never swaddle up their Children, but let them go peractly naked, both Boys and Girls, till they are fix or feven ears old, and 'tis not to be imagin'd how foon they will rawl about the Floor. The Moors and Mahometan Indians re allowed four Wives, and as many Concubines as they an keep. As to the Solemnization of a Wedding, nothing can more splendid: The Bridegroom is carried by Night arough the Streets, dreffed with the richest Clothes and ewels they can procure; the Streets are made as light as by by a great Number of Torches, with Flags, Streamers, and Music, marching before them, and a Croud of their siends and Acquaintance, who come to express their Joy the happy Occasion: Being come to the Bride's House, where the Marriage is celebrated, he takes the Bride home ith him; and from that time, she is scldom ever suffer'd see her nearest Male Relations, but in the Presence of her

CHINA.

imsband.

HINA, like other Countries, consists of Hills and Valleys; but both the one ind the other are made as level as possible, and laid out in less, like Gardens, by the Industry of the Natives. The oil, in general, is very rich, abounding in Corn, and Wine,

and all Kinds of Fruits and Provisions necessary to render Life agreeable. This Country is effected one of the finell and most fruitful in the whole World; and was a great Surprize to the Europeans, in the unexpected Discovery of for fine a Nation, and so polite a People, which were unknown to these Parts of the World till the Discovery of the East-Indies: It is exceeding populous, supposed to contain near 70,000,000 of People: Not only the stately Cities, but even the Towns and Villages are crouded with Inhabitante and the Roads, as well as Streets, are continually full of Paffengers. The chief Products of this Country are, Quickfilver. Silks, Porcelane Dishes, Ginger, China Ware, Rhubarb, Sugar, Camphire, Mulk, China Wood Linen, Oil, Ebony, Sandal Wood, Canes, Tea, &c. Tea is a Plant peculiar to this Country: It usually grows at the Foot of some Mountain; the Root resembling that of a Peach-tree, and its Flower that of white wild Roses. Tree is of all Sizes, from two Feet to an hundred in Height. The three Sorts of Tea, commonly brought to Europe, are of the same Plant; and only the Seasons of the Year when it is gathered, and the Soil, make the Difference. Bohea is the very first Bud, gathered in the Beginning of Merch, and dried in the Shade; the Imperial or Bing Tea is the second Growth, in April; and the common Green Tea, or Singlo, in May and June, which are both dried, in little Pans, over the Fire. The Chinese have Mines of Gold and Silver; but those of Gold are never suffered to be open'd. The Gold. which they have in such Plenty, is wash'd down by Torrents from the Mountains in the rainy Seasons, and is faid to need no refining. They have also Mines of Tin, Iron, Copper, and some Lead. Several of the Chinese Emperors have thought it worthy of their Royal Care, to promote and teach their Subjects Husbandry; the Invention of the Plough, and several Infiruments, and Books of Husbandry, they ascribe to some of their greatest Emperors. The longest Day, in the most Southern Part of China, is about 13 1 Hours; and, in the Northmost Part, about 15 Hours; therefore this Country lies in the adv 4th, 5th, and 6th Northern Climates.

GOVERNMENT.] The Histories of Chine begin within two or three hundred Years after the Flood, and shew a Suc-

cession of Monarchs down to this Time.

The Crown of China is faid to be bereditary by fome; but it is agreed by all, that the Emperor has a Power of altering the Succession, and declaring any one of his Subjects his Succession, though he has so Relation

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Relation to the Royal Family; but then this must be passed and ratisfied in the Great Council, which consists of the Princes of the Blood, and Ministers of State; and there have been Instances where the Emperor's Resolution has been opposed, and his Design of setting aside those who were look'd upon to be next Heirs deseated.

TRADE.] The Chinese hardly ever heard of any other Part of the World but Asia, till the Europeans discovered the Passage thither by the Cape of Good Hope, though we are assured they had the Loadstone, and the Use of the Compass, long before us; and the Reason they never made long Voyages, is faid to be, that they looked upon the rest of Mankind as little better than Brutes, and believed that they themselves possessed the greatest, as well as the best Part of the World. When the Europeans gave them to understand how very small a Part of the World the Chinese enjoyed, in comparison of the whole inhabited Earth, and that there were many Kingdoms, which surpassed them in several Arts and Sciences, they stood amazed; and the Surprize, on the Part of the Europeans, was very great, in discovering so fine a Country, and so polite a People. There is a fine Communication from one large City to another, for the Conveniency of Trade: For through every Province of China there is one grand Canal, which ferves as a high Road; from this are cut several smaller, which are again branched out into Rivulets, that generally end at fome Town or Village. Over the Canals are stately Bridges, of three, five, or seven Arches; the middle Arch so high, that Vessels may go through, without taking down their Masts. Nothing can afford a more agreeable Prospect, than fo many fine Canals, adorned with noble Bridges, built chiefly with Marble; with a prodigious Number of Cities, Towns, and Villages, upon the Banks; and a Multitude of Veffels, failing different Ways upon them, through the most fruitful Vales. Europe, 'tis faid, has nothing to boast of comparable to this. But, to return from this agreeable Digression, to their Trade: Silks, and other rich Merchandize, are transported upon these Canals, from Province to Province; and exported to India, Japan, the Philippines, Java, and other Islands in the Indian Seas. Goods imported from China are Tea, Quickfilver, Vermilion, China Root, Rhubarb, Raw and Wrought Silks, Copper, Camphire, Sugarcandy, Fans, Pictures, Lacquer'd Ware, Porcelane or China Ware, Soi, Borax, Lapis Lazuli, and several other M rchandizes. chief Goods usually brought from Europe to China are Bullion, Cloth, Cloth-Rask, Perpetuana's, Camblets, and Lead. Charac-

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and all Kinds of Fruits and Provisions necessary to render Life agreeable. This Country is effeemed one of the fines. and most fruitful in the whole World; and was a great Surprize to the Europeans, in the unexpected Discovery of to fine a Nation, and so polite a People, which were unknown to these Parts of the World till the Discovery of the East-Indies: It is exceeding populous, supposed to contain near 70,000,000 of People: Not only the stately Cities, but even the Towns and Villages are crouded with Inhabitants; and the Roads, as well as Streets, are continually full of Pasfengers. The chief Products of this Country are, Quickfilver, Silks, Porcelane Dishes, Ginger, China Ware, Rhubarb, Sugar, Camphire, Mulk, China Wood, Linen, Oil, Ebony, Sandal Wood, Canes, Tea, &c. Tea is a Plant peculiar to this Country: It usually grows at the Foot of some Mountain; the Root resembling that of a Peach-tree, and its Flower that of white wild Roses. Tree is of all Sizes, from two Feet to an hundred in Height. The three Sorts of Tea, commonly brought to Europe, are of the same Plant; and only the Seasons of the Year when it is gathered, and the Soil, make the Difference. Bohea is the very first Bud, gathered in the Beginning of March, and dried in the Shade; the Imperial or Bing Tea is the fecond Growth, in April; and the common Green Tea, or Singlo, in May and June, which are both dried, in little Pans, over The Chinese have Mines of Gold and Silver; but those of Gold are never suffered to be open'd. The Gold, which they have in such Plenty, is wash'd down by Torrents from the Mountains in the rainy Seasons, and is said to need no refining. They have also Mines of Tin, Iron, Copper, and some Lead. Several of the Chinese Emperors have thought it worthy of their Royal Care, to promote and teach their Subjects Husbandry; the Invention of the Plough, and several In-Aruments, and Books of Husbandry, they ascribe to some of their greatest Emperors. The longest Day, in the most Southern Part of China, is about 13 ½ Hours; and, in the Northmost Part, about 15 Hours; therefore this Country lies in the 3d, 4th, 5th, and 6th Northern Climates.

GOVERNMENT.] The Histories of China begin within two or three hundred Years after the Flood, and shew a Suc-

cession of Monarchs down to this Time..

The Crown of China is said to be hereditary by some; but it is agreed by all, that the Emperor has a Power of altering the Succession, and declaring any one of his Subjects his Successor, though he has no

Relation

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Relation to the Royal Family; but then this must be passed and ratified in the Great Council, which confifts of the Princes of the Blood, and Ministers of State; and there have been Instances where the Emperor's Resolution has been opposed, and his Defign of fetting afide those who were look'd upon to be next

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CHARACTER.] It is generally agreed, that a Majority of the Chinese are fquat, well-set Men; have broad Faces, black Hair, little dark Eyes, short Noses, and thin Beards. They were anciently reverenced throughout India, Tartary, and Person, as Oracles; and the greatest Objection, we are told,

that the Japonese made to the Christian Religion, was that so wise a Nation as the Chinese had not received it. Avarice, and Ambition, it seems, have a large Stroke in all Affairs in Chine, notwithstanding their boasted Politeness, and the equitable Rules

they pretend to be govern'd by.

RELIGION.] The prevailing Religion in China, is Idolatry, or Paganism. There are three Sects of Idolaters at this Day, first, the Followers of Li Laokum, who liv'd, as they fay, above five hundred Years before Christ. He taught that God was corporeal, and had many fubordinate Deities under The fecond Soft is that of the Learned, his Government. who are the Disciples of the so much celebrated Confucius, who left many admirable Precepts of Morality, and inftructed the People in Philosophy. He speaks of God as a most pure and perfect Principle, the Fountain and Essence of all Beings; and, though we are told he prohibited Idolatry, he has Temples and Images erected to him, and is worshipped with the profoundest Adoration. There is a third Sect, much more numerous than either of the former, who worship the Idol Fe, . whom they style the only God of the World. This Idol was imported from India, about thirty-two Years after the Death of our Saviour.

CUSTOMS.] The Men wear no Hats, but a Cap, like a Bell, made of fine Mat, which does not come so low as their Ears: They carry a Fan in their Hands, to screen them from the Heat of the Sun. They shave their Heads, except one Lock behind, which the better Sort make up in a little Roll. They wear a Vest, which reaches to the Ground, and folds over their Breasts; the Sleeves are wide at the Shoulder, but narrow towards the Wrist. The Vest at the Shoulder, but narrow towards the Wrist. The Vest is tied with a Silk Sash, which hangs down to their Knees. Over this Vest they wear a loose Coat, or Gown, shorter than the rest, with short Sleeves. They have a kind of Silk Boots, quilted with Cotton an Inch thick, and Slippers besides. The Women dress usually in their Hair, which is Part of

it made up in a Roll, and fasten'd with a Bodkin; the rest is divided into two Locks, which fall gracefully upon the Neck. They wear, as the Men do, a long Vest of Sattin; they have over this a loose Gown, with wide Sleeves, so long, that they would reach the Ground.

Ground, if they were not held up. But what is most remarkable is, their little Feet, in which their principal Beauty is thought to lie: As foon as a Girl is born, her Feet are bound up so hard, that they cannot grow; which make them walk a little awkwardly, the Foot of a grown Woman being no bigger than a Child's of three Years old. The Chinese are far from superstitious in their Diet; they do not only eat all Kinds of Flesh, Fish, and Fowl, as the Europears do; but Horse-slesh is in great Esteem Diet. amongst them; nor are Dogs, Cats, Snakes, Frogs, or scarce any fort of Vermin refus'd: But Rice, Roots, Pulse, and Garden-stuff, are the common Food. They use neither Cloth, Napkins, Knives, Spoons, or Forks; but two little round Sticks of Ebony, or other Wood, with which they take up their Meat very dexterously. They use high Chairs, and Tables, contrary to all the People of the Eaft besides, who sit cross-legg'd upon the Floor. Every Person, almost, at an Entertainment, has a little lacquer'd Table to himself, on which is set his Treat and Rice, in little Ghina Dishes or Saucers; and sometimes Plate is used. Tea is their principal Liquor; Wine they have none, tho' the Country abounds in fine Grapes; neither do they brew Beer of Barley, but have strong Liquors, which they make of Rice, or Wheat. People generally eat their Meat cold, Ceremony at though they drink their Liquors hot. At an Enteran Entertainment, whenever a Mouthful of Meat is taken tainment. up, or a Cup of Liquor drank, it occasions a hundred Grimaces: The Master of the Feast gives the Sign, when they fit down, by taken up the two Sticks, and making a Flourish with them; after which, they strike them into the Dish. They are to take as much Care as possible, that their Mouths all move together, that one may not have done before another; for either to be beforehand, or make the rest wait, is reckon'd a great Piece of Rudeness, and throws all into Confusion. When this is done, they flourish their little Sticks again; and, having taken two or three Mouthfuls of a Dish, the Master of the House gives a Sign to lay down their Arms, which they do in the same Order they found them. Then comes the Liquor, which is drank off with great Ceremony.

Of GREAT TARTARY.

CLIMATE.] THE Air of this Country is very different, as we may expect, in so vast a Tract of Land. The Products of this Country are chiefly Skins of Foxes, Sables, Hyenas, Ermins, Lynxes, and other Furs; Musks, Rhubarb, Flax, and some Cinnamon.

GOVERNMENT.] For the Government of Muscovite Tar-

tary, and Chinese Tartary, see the respective Heads.

Religion.] The Samoieds fay, that they believe that there is a God, and that they are convinc'd nothing is greater and more powerful than God, and that all Things depend on him; that we had one common Father, and that good Men will go to Paradife. But, notwithstanding this, they worship the Sun, Moon, and Planets, together with several Kinds of Beasts and Birds, from whom they hope to receive some Benefits. Images they also worship, in human Shape; but so very ill carved and dressed, that it would be difficult to discover what they represented. They have Pricsts among them, who pretend to the Magic Art, and to foretel suture Events. As to the Religion of the Ostiucks, I do not find it differs much from that of the Samoieds.

CUSTOMS.] The Samoieds eat the Flesh of Horses, Oxen, Deer, Sheep, and Fish, indifferently; but prefer the Entrails of Animals to any other Part of them. Their Houses are built with Poles, and the Branches of Trees, and cover'd with Bark: They are almost in the Form of a Bee-hive, and have a Hole in the Top to let out the Smoke; for the whole House is but one Room, with a Hearth in the Middle, round which they fit or lie upon Rain-deer Skins, their only Furniture, except the Horse-slesh, and other Carrion, which hangs round the Huts; for they feldom cat it while it is fweet, which makes their Habitation insupportable to any but themselves; and 'tis faid, the Fumes, that arise from their own unfavoury Hides, are almost as disagreeable as those which proceed from the Carrion their Diet. The Diversions of the Samoieds and Oftiacks are chiefly hunting the Elks and Rain-deer. They will venture over high Rocks of Ice, lying in the Island of Waigats, or Nova Zembla, in Pursuit of their Game: These People are shod with wooden Scates, with which they run over Mountains, with incredible Swiftness, upon the Snow; and, having a kind of Shovel in their Hands, fasten'd to a long Staff, with this they throw Snow at the wild Raindeer,

GEOGRAPHY, &c. deer, to force them into the Place where they have set their

Nets. They carefully observe the Wind, which they guess at the Alteration of, by certain Signs; for, if the North Wind fets in, there is no enduring the open Country; if they cannot escape to some Cave, and shelter themselves, till it is over, they certainly perish; from whence we may conclude, there are no constant Inhabitants about there, though some pretend to have seen them. The Diet of the Ofliacks is chiefly Fish, Venison, Wild Fowl, and Roots: Diet of the Bread they have none: Their Drink, for the most part, is fair Water, and sometimes the Blood of a Raindeer, or of any other Beast they take; and it is said, they can dispense with a Draught of Train Oil. Tobacco they are immoderately fond of; but, instead of blowing the Smoke out of their Mouths, they hold a little Water in their Mouths, with which they swallow the Smoke down; which fo intoxicates them, that they foon lofe their Senses, and throw up the Phlegm; and this they will repeat several times a Day. In Winter, they set up their Huts in Woods and Forests, where there

are the greatest Plenty of wild Beasts and Game; they dig deep in the Ground to secure themselves from the Cold, laying a Roof of Bark, or Rushes, over their Huts, which are covered with Snow in the hard Season. In the Summer, they build above Ground, on the Banks of Rivers, for the Conveniency of Fishing. The Ofliacks,

like the Samoieds, purchase their Wives of their Relations, for three or four Rain-deer; and take

Marriages.

as many as they please, returning them again to their Friends. if they do not like them, and their Loss is only the Rain-deer they gave for them. And, in some Parts of the Country. they take the Liberty of felling their Wives for Slaves, when

they are offended with them. They bury their Dead in the Clothes they wore when alive, hanging by them, on the next Tree, their Bows, Quivers, Hatchets, and other Utenfils. The Tartars, who live along the River irris, South-The east of Tokolsky, are wealthy in Cattle, having vast Flocks and Herds. These People live chief-

Funcrals.

Tartars on the letis.

Diet.

ly upon dried Fish, Venison, and Barley-meal: They drink Mares Milk, as most of the Tartars do, and sometimes Tea, but mix it with Flour and Butter. At great Entertainments, they usually dress a young Horse, which is their most delicious Food. Their Drink they make of Oatmeal, and Spirits distilled from Mares Milk, with which they often got

drunk, and behave themselves very brutishly. Their Habit resembles that of the ancient Drefs. Russians, and the Women wear Rings in their Beyond these People in the great Defart of Nostrils. Baraba, live certain Herds, or Tribes, call-Barabinsky ed Barabinsky Tartars: In the Winter, they Tartars. hunt in this Defart for Sables; but in Summer, they remove to the Banks of their Rivers, and are busied in Fishing. The Defart affording no other Water, Diet. they drink melted Snow, and eat dried Fish, and Barley-meal, like their Neighbours. a little Tobacco, a Man may purchase any thing they have; but they scarce know the Use of Money. Drefs. Cloaths, Caps, and Stockings, are made of Pieces of Fur patched together. The Bratsky Tartars Bratsky live chiefly on Venison, but value Horse-flesh Tartars. much more. Their Women wear long plaited Diet, Gowns; and the Virgins distinguish themselves, Dress, &c. by adorning their Hair with Brass, and glittering Toys, They also purchase their Wives, as in some other Parts of Siberia, with their Cattle; and often give a hundred Horses, or Oxen, for a Virgin they admire; and fifteen or twenty Camels, befides Sheep. The Tartars Nagaian about Astracan, call'd Nagaian Tartars, are con-Tartars. flantly moving from Place to Place, for the Convenience of Pasture: They cover their Tents with Cloth, made of Camels or Horses Hair: The Floor is laid with fine Mats, or Carpets; their Furniture confifts The Circeffiof fine Cabinets, Trunks, and Boxes. an Tartars. Circaffians have Plenty of Wild Fowl, Venision, Diet. Mutton and Beef; but a Piece of a young Colt is preferred before any of these. Their usual Drink is Water, or Mares Milk, like, other Tartars: They all smoke Tobacco, Men and Women, Young and Old: they fit cross-legged, and have a Carpet, or a Piece of Leather, spread before them, and little wooden Tables, at their Meals; but neither Linen, n r Plates, as Calmuck far as I can find. The Calmacks also rove from Tartars. Place to Place, during the fair Season, not less than eight or ten thousand of them frequently in a Body, who drive large Flocks and Herds before them. Manner of They begin their March usually in the Spring, Life. when the Grass is come up; and, as they make but easy Journeys, leave scarce any Herbage behind them in the Country they have pass'd through. In the latter End of the the Year, when there is a second Crop of Grasa, they usually return the same Way they came; and remain in a more substantial kind of Houses, during the Winter Seasons, than they inhabited in the Summer; but the People and the Cattle frequently lie in the same Room. They eat indifferently of all Kinds of Meat almost, except Hogs Dies. Flesh; and for their Drink, they have com-

monly Water; they have also Tea, and Spirits extracted from Mares Milk. In the Winter, they have Sables, Martens,

Ermins, and other Beafts, which afford Furs.

CURIOSITIES.] For want of Curiosities, I shall present the Reader with the best Account I can meet with of that prodigious Wall, which separates Tartary from China, built by the Chinese, to hinder the frequent Incursions of the Tartars. This Wall begins in the Province of Xenfi, which lies on the North-west of China, in about 38 Degrees of Latitude, and is carried on over Mountains and Valleys; first, towards the North-east to the Latitude 42, and then South-easterly to the Latitude 39; and terminates at the Kang-Sea, between the Provinces of Pekin and Leotung. The whole Course of it, with all the Windings, is about 1500 Miles: It is almost all built with Brick, and such well-tempered Mortar, that it has now flood above 1800 Years: There are no Breaches in it, except in the Province of Pekin, North of the City Suven, where, instead of the Wall, are very high and inaccessible Mountains. By the Embassy that was sent from Muscovy to China, and Travel-Hers who have lately seen it, we learn that it is about ten Yards high, and about five Yards thick. It is fortified all along by square Towers at a Mile Distance, say some; and others, at the Distance of two Bow-shots from one another. It was formerly guarded by a Million of Soldiers; but now Guards are only placed at such Parts of it, as are easiest of Access.

Of the Asiatic ISLES.

CLIMATE.] Rom the Situation of the Islands, belonging to the Kingdom of Japan, extending from the 30th to the 38th Deg. of North Lat. and some say to the 40th, it may be expected the Air should be moderately warm; but to the North of the Mountains, which run through the midst of Japan, their Winsters are very severe, and they have great Quantities of Snow. The Mountains of Fermosa.

ſaid,

faid, are full of Brimstone; which makes the Island subject to Earthquakes. Anian is a pleatiful Island, and has Mines of Gold and Silver, The Philipand a Pearl Fishery. The Philippines are a great pine Islands. Number of Islands; some say a thousand, extending from the 5th to the 19th Degree of North Latitude. These Islands are subject to great Earthquakes; and the burning Mountains have, 'tis observed, all those Effects which Pliny ascribes to the burning Mountains of Italy; namely, that they cast out their Flames, shake the Earth, driving from them the neighbouring Rivers and Seas, and scattering their Ashes round the Country, rending the very Rocks, which fometimes give a Report like a Cannon. From these subterraneous Fires proceeds a great Variety of hot Baths; and some of the Rivers and Streams are so hot, that they immediately kill any Animal that falls into them. Within half a Mile of one of these hot Rivers, in Island of Manila, there runs another, which is excessive Manila. cold. No Country in the World can appear more beautiful; there is a perpetual Verdure; Birds, Blossoms, and Fruit, are found upon the Trees all the Year round, as well on the Mountains as Gardens. This Coun-Products of try produces Pearls, Ambergrise, Cotton, and the Philip-Civet, and is rich in Gold Mines, but feldom pines. wrought; they have vast Quantities of Gold Dust, which are washed down from the Hills by the Rains, and found mix'd with the Sand of their Rivers. Amboina Products of Amboina are Cloves, Oranges, Lemons, Cloves. Sugar-canes, Cocoas, and other Fruits; they have Moluccas, also Potatoes, and some Tobacco. In the Moluctheir Procas, they have neither Corn or Rice, or hardly duce. any Butchers Meat, but Goats Flesh. also Almonds, Oranges, and Lemons, and other delicious Fruits; but what is peculiar to these Islands, and, in Return for which, they were once furnished with the Produce of every other Country, is their Cloves. The Banda Isles. Banda Isles are as famous for Nutmegs, as the Nutmegs. Moluccas and Amboina are for Cloves. The Nutmeg-tree is like the Peach, only its Leaves are rounder, and fomething less: The Fruit is inclos'd in a thick Rind, like a Walnut; under this a Leaf, which covers the Shell, and what we call Mace; and within this lies the Nutmeg. It feems the Dutch have Mace. rooted up all the Cloves in the Meluccas, properly so called,

because they lay expos'd to the Attempts of other Nations; for this Reason they have encouraged the Planting of Cloves in Amboina only, which have increased to such a Degree, that this Island alone is now sufficient to serve the whole World with Cloves. The Air in the Island of Celebes is hot and moist, the whole Country ly- Celebes. ing under or very near the Line, and subject to great Rains. It is most healthful during the Northern Monfoens; if they fail of blowing their accustomed Time, which . is very seldom, the Island grows sickly, and great Numbers of People are swept away. They have Mines of Copper, Tin, and Gold; but I do not find they are much wrought: The Gold they have is found chiefly in the Sands of their Rivers. and at the Bottoms of Hills, wash'd down by Torrents. This . Country produces many venomous Drugs and Herbs, the very Touch or Smell of which occasions present Death. The Cattle have that Sagacity, it is observed, that they seldom touch a noxious Herb; and if they happen to tread near one, immediately fly from it. The Air in the Island of Borneo is not excessive hot, considering it is Borneo Air. situated under the Equinoctial, being refreshed almost every Day with Showers and Sea-breezes, as all other Countries are under the Line. Gold and Precious Stones, which abound in this Island, make Products. our Adventurers slight Death in every Shape, rather than not possess them. As to their Monsoons, or periodical Winds, they are Westerly from September to April, or thereabouts; during which Time is their wet Season, when heavy Rains continually pour down, intermix'd with violent Storms of Thunder and Lightning; and, at this Time, it is very rare to have two Hours fair Weather together on the South Coast of the Isle, where the Europeans principally resort. The dry Season begins usually in April, and continues till September; and, in this Part of the Year too, they seldom fail of a Shower every Day, when the Sea-breeze comes in. This Island also produces Pepper, and many other valuable Commodities. The Air of Sumatra is generally very unwholfome; for, from the hot- Sumaira Air. test sultry Weather, it often suddenly changes to chilling Cold. The low Grounds also, near the Coast, where the Natives, as well as Foreigners, principally inhabit, being one continued Morals, the same Kind of stinking Fogs arise here as in Borneo, and render this Country no less unhealthful, especially to Foreigners. The principal Pro-Products. duce of Sumatra is Pepper, and Gold Duft; it allo. Vol. I.

also affords good Camphire, and the Bezoar-stone is also found here. The Monfoons and Seafons are the fame in the Island of Ceylon, as on the Ceylon. neighbouring Continent, and the Rains begin to fall much fooner on the Western Coast than on the Eastern; The Northern Part of the Island is subject to great Droughts for feveral Years together; which is the more fensible Affliction, because they have scarce any Springs or Rivers in that Part of the Island, but must be supplied, with Dissiculty. wish Water, as well as Food, from the South: This often renders this Part of the Country very fickly, but the rest is efteem'd very healthful. The Tree peculiar to this Island, and more valuable to the Dutch. than any of the Mines of Potofi to the Spaniards. The Cinna-

is the Cinnamon: This Tree is as common as any other, in the Woods, on the South-West Part of the Island. GOVERNMENT.] The Japan Isles are under the Government of fifty or fixty petty Kings, vefted with Sovereign Power in their respective Territories, Зарап. but subject to one great Monarch, who can Philippine depose and punish them as he sees fit. Mands. Philippine Islands, being mostly subject to the King of Spain, are rul'd by a Viceroy, or Captain General, who keeps his Court in the City of Manile. Borneo. The Isle of Borneo is divided into **feveral** petty Kingdoms; and, when any grows more powerful than the rest, he usually brings his Neighbours into a State of Dependence, and sometimes obtains the Name of Sultan, or King of the whole Island. Sumatra seems to be very differently con-Sumatra. stituted; and most of them have experienced great Alterations and Revolutions in the last Century. The King of Ceylon is absolute, being restrained by no Ceylon. Laws or Customs from doing what he thinks fit.

When he goes abroad, his Guards are very numerous, and is preceded by Drums, Trumpets, and other Wind-mussic, and with Singing-women. When his Subjects come into his Presence, they fall three times upon their Faces: and then do not stand, but sit upon their Legs before him, and address him in Terms little inferior to those they use in Divine Worship; and when they go out of his Presence, they creep backwards till they are out of Sight. His Courtiers, while they are in Waiting, are not permitted to come near

their Wives; nor will he so much as suffer their Wives to remain in the City, insomuch that if they are taken with a Lady, while they are in his Service, it is capital. This Prince manages most of his Affairs by two great Ministers, to whom the Subjects may appeal from inserior Judges, or Governors. The Cinnamon Plantations are wholly in the Power of the Dutth, and they have oblig'd the King to retire farther up into the Country, and suffer him to entertain no Commerce of Correspondence with the rest of the World: This Island may be said, in general, to be under the Dominion of the Hellenders.

TRADE.] As to the Trade of the Japonese, they have very little at present, but with Jesso, the Chinese, and Dutch. The Inhabitants of Mindanao trade chiefly to Manila, whither they transport Gold, and Bees-wax: and bring back Calicoes, Muslins, and China Silks: they maintain a Trade also with Borneo; the Dutch come hither, in Sloops, from Ternate and Tidore, and purchace Rice, Bees-wax, and Tobacco. The Island of Manila lies so conveniently between the rich Kingdoms of the East and West, that it has been esteem'd the best Situation for Trade in the World, especially when the Molucca Islands were under the same Government; then the Spaniards might be faid to have the best Share of the East as well as the West-Indies: Hitherto Silver was brought from New Spain and Peru; Diamonds, and other Precious Stones, from Golconda; Cinnamon, from Ceylon; Pepper, from Sumatra and Java; Cloves and Nutmegs, from the Moluccas; Silks, from Bengal; Camphire, from Borneo; China Ware, and Silks, from China, &c. Two Ships fail yearly to Acapulco, in New Spain, loaded with the Riches of the East; these Vessels are returned to Manila freighted with Silver, and make four hundred per Cent. Profit, 'tis said. The Goods our Merchants deal in, in Borneo, are chiefly Pepper, Gold, and Precious Stones; though it affords several other valuable Commodities. Goods proper for Exportation thither (befides Dollars) are Guns, Sheet-lead, showy Calimancoes, Knives, and other Cutlers Wares, but not Forks; Iron Bars, small Steel Bars, Hangers, Nails, Graplings, Red Leather Boots, Spectacles, Clock-work, Fire Arms, Gunpowder, and Looking-glasses. The Dutch suffer no Europeans to trade in Java; but there come to Batavia Java. fifteen or twenty Sail of Chinese Junks every Year, T 2

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Year, from three to five hundred Tons apiece, which furnish the Hollanders with all the Merchandize of China, at an eafier Rate, than they could by fending their Fleets thither, Batavia is the great Magazine of the Dutch East-India Company: Hither they import the Merchandizes of Japan, of the Spice-Islands, Persia, Surat, Bengal, and the Coast of Malabar and Coromandel, as well as every thing that Europe affords. One fort of Goods they barter for another all over the Indies; and having furnished themselves with what is most valuable in the East, transport it into Europe, Sumatra. where all is converted into Money. The Trade of Sumatra is chiefly carried on at the Port of Achen, where there is seldom less than ten or fifteen Sail of Ships of different Nations. The principal Merchandize of this Country is Pepper and Gold Dust; and, notwithstanding they have greater Quantities of Gold here, than in any other Country in India, the great Demand for it keeps it at a very high Rate.

RELIGION.] The Japonese are Idolaters, and worship the Heavens and the Planets, with several mon-Of Fapen. strous Idols. The Natives of the Philippine Islands retain some Traditions, in their Songs, Of the Philippines. concerning the Genealogy and heroic Acts of their Gods or ancient Heroes. By these it appears, they formerly worshipped one Supreme Being, the Maker or Father of all their subordinate Deities. They adored also Birds and Beasts, like the Egyptians; and the Sun and Moon, like the Affyrians: And indeed there is not a Rock or Stone, Promontory or River, but what they facrifice to at Borneo. present. The Religion of the People of the Inland Parts of Borneo is Paganism, which they received from their Ancestors the Chinese, who first planted this Island; but all the Sea Coasts are Mahometans, being the Posterity of these Colonies which transported themselves from Afric, Arabia, and Persia, to the Oriental Islands, between three and four hundred Years fince; invited hither by the Spices and other rich Merchandizes, for which the East has been famous many Ages past. The Natives of Ceylon worship one Supreme God, the Creator Caylon. of Heaven and Earth; they fall down before the Images of their Saints, or Heroes, whom they suppos'd to have liv'd upon the Earth, and are now become Angels, or ministring Spirits, to the great Creator: But the principal of their inferior Deities is their God Buddon, who, they believe, came from Heaven, to procure the eternal Happiness of Mankind, and ascended into Heaven from the Top of a Mountain, leaving the Impression of his Foot there in the Rock.

which is now become the Object of their Worship.

CUSTOMS.] The Japonese wear several Vests one upon another, with a loose Gown over all, not much unlike the Chinese; they have Drawers also, which come down very low upon their Legs;

and Slippers without Heels like the Chinese; but wear no Cape, though their Heads are shaved: They have Fans and Umbrellas to defend them from the Weather; they wear a short Dagger in their Sash, and a heavy Broad-sword on the Right Side. They eat little Beef or Mutton, or

of the Flesh of any tame Beast, but chiefly that Diet.

which they take in Hunting. Some Sects look upon themselves to be prohibited, by their Religion, to kill any thing, or eat any thing that has Life; and will not fo much as eat Milk, Butter, or Cheese. Their common Food is Rice, Pulse, and Herbs, as it is in most Eastern Nations. The Generality of the People drink a Liquor made of Wheat, and draw a Spirit from Rice; but the usual Liquor is Tea. They eat with two little round Sticks, like the Chinese, and use neither Linen, Knives, Forks, or Spoons. These People, it is observed, spend great Part of their Night in Eating

and Drinking, which others spend in Sleep: And because their Manners and Customs are acknowledg'd to be different from the rest of the World in many In-Salutations.

stances, some Writers affirm, that they resemble

us in nothing; and particularly, that, instead of bowing, to shew their Respect to their Betters, they stand up as stiffly as they can: But I find, by the best Writers, that they bow their Bodies as we do, and never approach their Magistrates, but upon their Knees. They delight much in Maf-

querades and Plays, at which the King and Court Diversions.

are often present; the Ministers of State, and great Men, being frequently the principal Actors. When they celebrate their annual Festival of visiting the

Tombs of their Ancestors, every House is illu- Festivals.

minated; and they march out of the Town at Midnight, in a folemn Procession, to the Graves of their deceased Friends, where they eat, drink, and make merry, for feveral Nights successively: At the Conclusion of the Feast, they march round the Town with Flags, Streamers, and Banners; beating upon Brass Pans before the Temples of their

Idols, and at the Doors of the great Men. When Esturtainments. a great Man makes an Entertainment, it is usual, at the End of the Feaft, to call his Servants together, it is faid, and demand which of them will kill themselves, before the Guefts, for his fake; and thereupon they contend who shall first rip up their Bowels: This is also common, it is faid, upon the Death of their Mafters, or upon the laying the Foundation of a Palace, or magnificent Building. In Japan they burn their dead Bodies, as in India. On Funerals. the Day appointed for the Funeral, a large fquare Pile of Wood is erected without the Town; and, the Friends and Relations of the Deceased being affembled, the Women first move forward, cloath'd in White; which is the Colour used in Mourning here, as well as in China. The Women, of any Quality, are carried in Litters of Cedar; after these follow the Men, richly dress'd; then come the Priests, cloath'd in Linen, one of them with a Righted Torch, singing, with his Brethren, all the Way they march: Some carry Brass Basons, which they beat upon; and others Baskets of Flowers, which they strew in the Way, fignifying that the Soul is gone to Paradife. Several Banners, with the Names of their Idols, and Lanterns full of Lights, are carried before the Corpse; which is set upright, in a sort of a Coach, cloath'd in White, and his Hands join'd together in a praying Posture; and is followed by his Children, the eldest carrying a Torch to light the Fire. Having three times furrounded the Funeral-pile, about which are placed Tables, with Meat and Drink upon them, the Chief Priest begins a Hymn; and, having wav'd a lighted Torch three times about his Head, fignifying that the Soul is without Beginning or End, he flings the Torch away; which the Children of the Deceased taking up, kindle the Funeral-pile, throwing on Oil, and costly sweet Woods, till the Corpse is burnt After which the Children offer Incense, and adore to Ashes. their Father, as being become one of the heavenly Inhabitants. The next Day they return to the Place, and put the Bones and Ashes in a gilded Urn, which is hung up in the House for some time, and afterwards interred with Farniture. much Solemnity. They use neither Tables, Beds, or Chairs; but fit on Mats when they eat, and lie on them when they fleep. The Natives along

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Liquor is Water, or Tea. They fit cross-legg'd, on Mats,

the Coasts of Bornes eat chiefly boil'd Rice, Fowls, hard Eggs, Fish, and Venison; their usual

at their Meals, as they do at other times, being feldom feen in any other Posture. They live in a hospitable, friendly Manner, their Houses being always open to their Acquaint-ance. Both Sexes are fond of Tobacco, which is usually mix'd with Opium: The Master of the House usually lights the Pipe first, (for they use but one) which, after he has smok'd two or three Whiffs, he gives to his Neighbour, and he to a third, till it has gone round the Company, who fit cross-legg'd in a Ring upon Mats: When they have continu'd smoking some time, they grow exceeding chearful; but, when they fit too long at it, they grow mad, or stupid. The ordinary Way of Salutation is by joining their Hands, and lifting them up towards their Salutations. Breaft, or Head, and bowing the Body a little; but when they appear before a great Man, they lift their join'd Hands to their Forehead, falling down on their Faces and Knees; and if it be before a Prince, they begin to creep towards him at a confiderable Distance; and in the same manner they retire, after they are dispatched. And whoever has Occasion to petition his Superior, lies in this humble Pofture till he is spoke to, which is sometimes a confiderable Time. These People frequently marry Marriogus. their Daughters at eight or nine Years of Age, and they have Children soon after; but are usually past the Peril by that time they are Five-and-twenty. The ordinary Food, in Sumatra, is Rice, and Sumatra. Fish; but those who can afford it, eat Mutton, Goats-flesh, Buffalo, Beef, and Venison. Their usual Liquor is fair Water, or Tea; Arrack, or Spirits drawn from Rice and Sugar-canes, is very common here; they have also Palm Wine, and a Liquor drawn from the Branches of the Cocoa-tree. The ordinary Salutations are Salutations. perform'd by bringing one or both Hands to their Head; but before any great Man, they prostrate themselves with their Faces to the Ground; and, like other Asiatics, sit cross-legg'd on the Floor at their Meals, and whenever they meet or converse together. Gaming they love immoderately, both Cards and Dice; which were probably introduced here by the Chinese; and few Days pass without a Cock-match: They do not trim the Cock for the Engagement, as in Europe, but produce them with all their gay Plumage, and fasten such murdering Instruments to their Heels, of the Shape and Length of a Penknife Blade, that the Battle is over in an Instant: One Stroke often brings down the stoutest Cock; but the Conquest is not admitted. T 4

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admitted, unless the Victor will strike or peck his Enemy, after he has dispatched him; for, if he does not, they draw Stakes. They will stake their whole Fortunes upon one of these Encounters. As to the Inhabitants of the Inland Country, and Mountains, we have no Account of their Customs;

but, as they are descended from the Chinese, they probably retain many of their Customs. The Oreis of the Ceylonese is usually a Waistcoat, of blue or white Calico, and a Piece of Calico

wrapped about their Middles, with a Sash over it, in which they slick their Knise, which has usually a fine wrought Handle; they have a Hanger also, and usually walk with a Cane; but the common People go naked to the Middle, about which they wrap a Piece of Calico, which reaches down to their Knees. The Women go in their Hair combed behind their Heads; they have a Waisscoat slourished, which sits close to their Bodies, and shews their Shape: They wrap a Piece of Calico about them, which falls below their Knees; and is longer and shorter, according to their Quality: They have Jewels in their Ears, in which they bore great Holes, and

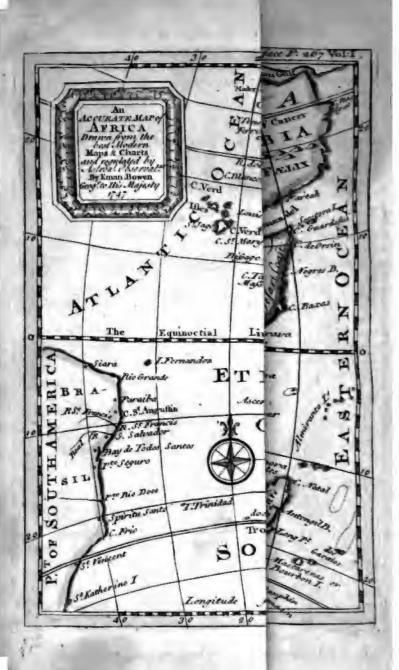
Solutation: falute their Acquaintance, it is by holding out both their Hands with the Palm upwards, and bowing their Bodies; but one of a superior

Quality holds out but one Hand, or perhaps nods his Head. The Women falute, by clapping the Palms of their Hands together, and carrying them to their Foreheads. When the nearest Relations visit, they sit very reserved and silent, and

piet. are at no Time addicted to talk much. The principal Food is Rice, with some savoury Soups, made of Flesh, or Fish: The better Sort will

have fix or seven Dishes at their Tables, but they are most of them Soup, Herbs, or other Garden-stuff; seldom more than one or two of Flesh and Fish, of which they eat very sparingly. The Meat is cut in little Pieces, and laid by the Rice; so that they use no Knives or Forks, but they have Ladles and Spoons: They have Brass and China Plates to eat on; but the poorer Sort, who want these, make a shift with broad Leaves instead of them. Their usual Drink is Water, which they pour into their Mouths, holding the Bottle at a Distance from their Heads. If they have Rice and Salt in the House, the Poor look upon themselves to be well provided for: Bees, I think, they are prohibited to eat, if they are inclin'd to it; and, for Pork and Fowls, they choose to sell these to Foreignamongs them; and would think themselves hardly used, if





if they were compelled to make a Meal of either. The Wife dreffes the Food, and waits on the Husband while he eats; and then fits down with her Children, and takes what he leaves.

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CLIMATE.] THE Air of Egypt is not healthful, the Situation being very low: and the Mud which covers the best Part of it, after the overflowing of the Nile, fending up a noisome Vapour. The sandy Desarts, which inclose Egypt on three Sides, render it excessive hot: Nor are there more than two Springs in the whole Country, to refresh the parched Inhabitants. It seldom rains here in the Summer; but in the Winter, modern Travellers affure us, it rains plentifully fometimes, especially in Lower Egypt; notwithstanding it was universally believ'd formerly, that it never rain'd here at all. The Fertility of Egypt has been long fince observ'd, to be ascrib'd chiefly to the overflowing of the River Nile, which leaves a fattening Slime behind it; for the Soil is naturally a barren Sand, but the Fields the Water covers are, some of them, so very rich, that the Hufbandmen are forced to mix Sand with the Earth, or their Grain would be too rank.

GOVERNMENT.] The Egyptians are certainly a very ancient Nation; for it is generally agreed, that Cham, the Son of Noah, was the same with Jupiter Hammon; and Misraim his Grandson, the same with Osiris, the great Deity of the Egyptians; and from him, 'tis said, descended that Race of Monarchs, who had the general Denomination of Pharaobs. Egypt is at present a Province of the Turkish Empire; and is govern'd by a particular Bassa, or Beglerbeg, whose Post is generally esteem'd the most honourable Government of any belonging to the Turkish Empire, having under him sisteen different Governments.

RELIGION.] As to the Religion of the Mahemetans of

Egypt, it differs but little from that of the Turks.

Customs.] The hatching Chickens in Ovens is one of the remarkable Customs related of this Country.

They put their Eggs in Ovens, which are heated with so temperate a Warmth, and imitate so well the natural Heat, that Chickens are formed and hatched in them, These Ovens are underground, and the Hearth of them covered with Cotton, or Flax, to lay the Eggs upon. They begin to heat their Ovens about



been driven from that Country in the Year 1492, and trafported to the Coast of Barbary, and revenging themselves a the Spaniards by plundering the Towns on the Coaffe. prising and carrying off Multitudes of People into Captivity. were the Cause of erecting the Kingdom of Algiers by the Turks. The Porte governed the Kingdom of Algiers by their Baffas till the 17th Century, when the Janizaries &. Militia found Means to perfuade the Grand Signor to let then elect one of their own Officers, with the Title of Der, to be their Governor; promising to raise Supplies sufficient to maintain their Forces, which would save the Porte an immense Sum, and that they would always acknowledge the Grand Signor for their Sovereign. However, the Emperor's Orders were very little regarded afterwards in the Algerine Territories, which are, at present, no otherwise under his Dominions,

than as he is looked upon to be the Head of their The Govern-Religion; for the Dey of Algiers acknowledges ment of Trino Superior. The Government of Tunis, Tripoli, Tunis, poli, and Barca, is the same with that of Algiers, only in that one Instance, that the Dey in the

former is under some Subjection to the Turkish Bassa.

TRADE.] The Trade of Algiers, by which they principally subsist, is Piracy and Manstealing. In their Prizes they find all

the Merchandize of Europe.

CHARACTER.] The Moors are said to be a covetous, unhospitable People, intent upon nothing but heaping up Riches; to obtain which they will be guilty of the meanest Things, and slick at no manner of Fraud; and, as they know themselves to be such treacherous, deceitful Wretches, they are very suspicious of Foreigners. But, with all their bad Qualities, they are observed to be very dutiful and obedient to their Parents, their Princes, and every Superior; and they are certainly to be commended for their Reverence for God and Religion, and whatever is effeemed facred amongst them: They will not suffer these to be burlesqued, and made a Jest of, by profane Fools; which is too often connived at among Christians, and sometimes encouraged by those that ought to set a better Example. The Arabs, amongst them, have always had the Character of a thievish, pilsering Generation; and tis faid, will even rob and destroy one another, when they have nobody else to prey upon; and as they perpetually lead a rambling Life, are observed to be of a more tawny Complexion, and much thinner and leaner, than the Moors.

RELIGION.] The established Religion in Barbary is Mabometanism; but the Inhabitants of Morocco differ from other

Mabemetans in several considerable Points.

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Customs.]

CUSTOMS.] They express their Reverence both to God and Man, by putting off their Slippers, which they leave at the Door of the Mosque, or Palace, when they enter in; and, when they attend their Prince in the City, they run bare-foot after him, if the Streets are never so dirty. They smoke pretty much, and play at Draughts and Chess; but never for Money, this being a Prohibition of their Law.

Of Biledurgerid, Zaara, Negroland, and Guinea.

CLIMATE.] THE Air of Biledulgerid is very hot, but generally esteem'd very wholfome; the Country is very barren, with scarce any Town in it: However, their grows some Corn, and great Quantities of Dates. The Chief of their Commodities are Cattle and Indigo. The Air of Zaara. Zaera. is much the same as in Biledulgerid, only something hotter. The Soil is generally dry and fandy, and not very fertile either for Corn or Fruit. If there happens to be any Wind, both here, and in Biledulgerid, the Travellers are frequently lost in terrible Mountains of Sand. The Commodities of this Country chiefly confift in a few The Air in Negroland is Cattle and Dates. very hot, but generally reckoned exceeding wholsome; and the Soil very rich, especially towards the River Niger, which overflows a great Part of the Country, producing great Plenty of Rice and Millet, Palm-trees, Cocoanuts, and other Fruits; they have also Gold, Elephants Teeth, and Drugs, but no great Quantities. The Face of. Guinea. the Country, on the Guinea Coast in general, is agreeably diversified with Mountains, Valleys, Woods, and open Fields; the Hills are adorned with Trees of an extraordinary Height, and the Valleys between them large, rich, and proper for the Cultivation of all manner of Corn and Fruits, with Villages every where agreeably interspersed, the Country being exceeding populous. Travellers make but two Seasons in this Country; namely, Winter and Summer: From April to September inclusive, is their Winter, or rainy Season; and from Offeber to March inclusive, is their Summer, and their hottest, as well as fairest Weather.

GOVERNMENT.] Biledulgerid has remained unconquered, except a Part of it by the Romans, till the Year Biledulgerid.
710, when it was subdued by the Saracens, but afterwards lest again; so that it is now under several Princes and Arabian Chiess, many of whom pay some Acknowledgment.

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ledgment to the Emperor of Maracco, and fome to the Grand Signor. As to the History and Government of Zaara, we can give very little Account of it: However, it is at prefent, it feems, under feveral petty Princes, and inferior Lords, with some Arabian Chiefs and many Places have very little Signs of any Government, the Inhabitants wandering about from Place to Place for the Conveniency of Hunting. As to Negreland, we are very much in the dark concerning the inland Parts; Negroland. for it is certain, they are perfectly unknown to the Europeans, unless what they have gathered from the Report of the Natives, who are but poorly qualified to give Descriptions, or the Hiftory of their Country. Neither is the Language of feveral of the Negro Nations, who come down to the Mouth of the River Niger to trade with the Europeans, understood by them, or even by the Natives of the Coast; and confequently all the Descriptions we have of Negroland, above 300 Miles to the Westward of Cape Verd, and the Atlantic Ocean, must be imperfect. There may be forty Kingdoms and Nations of different People, for aught we know, comprehended in that vast Tract assigned to Negroland, which out Geographers continue under that Name. However, we are told, this Country is subject to several Kings, who are abfolute; but all, or most of them, are tributary to the King of Tombut. In Guinea there are some Sovereign Princes, whose Dominions are very extensive, rich, powerful, and arbitrary; Monarchs limited by no Laws, or any other Restraints: And there are a Multitude of others, to whom the Europeans have given the Name of Kings, whose Dominions do not exceed the Bounds of an ordinary Parish, and whose Revenues and Power are proportionably mean. these are, in Reality, all subject to some of the superior Monarchs first-mentioned, and no better than their Vassals; obliged to attend them in their Wars, to quarter their Soldiers, and to submit

to such Duties and Impositions as are imposed upon them.

Religion.] The Natives of Biledulgerid and Zaara are generally Mahometans, being probably the Descendents of those Arabs, or Saracens, who over-ran all the North of Africa in the Seventh Century The chief Deity of the Fidaians, a considerable Kingdom of Guinea, is a Serpent of a particular Species, whose Bite is not mortal. To this Animal they address themselves on the most important Occasions, as for the Preservation of their State, seasonable Weather, and other Blessings of Life. They have also a grand Temple erected in Fidab, dedicated to this Serpent; and a lesser almost in every

Village,

e with Priests and Priestesses to officiate in them. In this Temple, 'tis said, they always keep a Serpent of a mon-Size, worshipping the Creature in Person, and not in Such is the Reverence they bear to these adored Serthat, should any Person hurt one of them, or but touch with a Stick, we are affured he would be condemned to the We have an Instance of this in a Negro, who was a zer at Fidab, for he only took one of these Animals gently Stick, and carried the Creature out of his House without it; and yet the Natives fet up their great Howl, as they y do in case of a Fire; immediately alarmed the whole and it was with great Difficulty, that the King of Fidab. made sensible of the Stranger's Ignorance, saved his Life. will not hear any thing spoken in Derision of these crawland to us terrible Animals; but stop their Ears, and run , if any European pretends to laugh at their superstitious rence for these Serpents. Basman relates, that a Hog hapig to devour one of these Snakes, a Proclamation was imately issued for destroying all the Hogs in the Country, and dance of them were flaughtered on that Occasion; but at Instance of some of the rich Owners, and some Presents to the King, the severe Decree was revoked. The next the Fidaians pay divine Honours to, are fine lofty Trees Groves: To these they apply in their Sickness, or any te Misfortune. The Sea is another of their principal 5, to whom they sacrifice when the Winds and Waves are mpestuous, that no foreign Merchant can visit their Coast. his Occasion they throw in all Manner of Goods, Meat, k, and Cloathing, to appeare the enraged Element. But, es these public Objects of Adoration, every Man has a nuous Set of Gods, of his own chusing, at Fidab.

Of ETHIOPIA.

*HERE are not any two of the Learned that agree in the modern Division of Africa; for scarce any Traveller cenetrated into the Heart of the Country, and consequently nust acknowledge our Ignorance of the Geography of sevent the Midland Nations: But I shall endeavour to give the ser a just Abstract of the best, though slender Accounts have concerning them; and shall beg leave to comprehend remaining Part of Africa under the general Name of spia.

LIMATE.] Ethiopia, comprehending so many Empires, poloms, and Sovereignties, cannot be supposed to enjoy

the same Nature of Air in all its Parts; and the Soil also must be very different. The chief Commodities of these Dominions (as far as we know of them) are Gold, Silver, Musk, Ambergris, Rice, Millet, Cattle, Lemons, Citrons, Ivory, Oil, Sugar-canes, Flax, Salt, Corn, &c.

GOVERNMENT.] The King of Abistinia is, or rather was absolute, and his Throne hereditary; but as he has lost so much of his Power and Prerogative, which the great Men of the Country have usurped, he is now frequently controuled by

his Lords.

RELIGION.] The Religion of the Abisfinians is a Mixture of Christianity and Judaism; but in their Christianity, they approach nearer the Greek than the Latin Church: They keep both the Jewish and Christian Sabbath, and keep each of them more like a Fast than a Festival. As to the Natives of Zanguebar, some of them are Mahometans, and The Hottentots believe a Supreme Being fome Pagans. Creator of Heaven and Earth, and all Things therein; the famous Governor of the World, through whose Omnipotence all Things move and live: And that this Being is endowed with incomprehensible Attributes and Perfections; styling him Gounja Gounja, or Gounja Triquoa, God of Gods: That he is good, and does nobody any Hurt, and dwells far above the Moon: And yet, pay no divine Worship to this Supreme God; because say they, their first Parents grievously offended the Divine Being, who thereupon cursed them, and all their Posterity, with Hardness of Heart; so that they now know little of him, and have less Inclination to serve him: However, they worship several subordinate Deities, particularly the Moon; for when it is at full, they affemble in great Numbers, and dance in Circles, clapping their Hands, crying, Ho, Ho, Ho, Ho, raising and falling their Voices, and raving all Night long: They throw themselves into surprising Distortions of Body, stare wildly towards Heaven, extend every Feature, and cross their Foreheads with a red Stone. When they are spent with the Violence of the Action, they squat down upon their Heels, holding their Heads between their Hands, and resting their Elbows on their Knees; and after a little time they start up again, and fall to dancing as before, with all their Might. The Moon, they fay, has the Direction of the Weather, and therefore they pray to it when it is unfea-fonable. They also worship a Fly about the Bigness of an Hornet: It is scarce possible to express the Agonies these People are in, if any European attempts to take or kill one of

these Insects, as the Dutch will sometimes seem to attempt, to put the superstitious Natives into a Fright: They will beg and pray, and fall prostrate on the Ground, to procure the Liberty of this little Creature. Whenever the Hottentots fee this Fly approach their Kraal, they all affemble about it, and fing and dance round it while it remains there; and, if it happens to light upon a Tent, they look upon the Owner of it for the future as a Saint, and pay him more than usual Respect: The best Ox of the Kraal is also immediately facrificed, to testify their Gratitude to the little winged Deity; and, to honour the Saint he has been pleased thus to distinguish, they present him with the Entrails, the Fat and Cawl of the Ox, the choicest Morsels of the Beast in their Opinion: The Cawl being twifted like a Rope, the Saint ever after wears it like a Collar about his Neck Day and Night, till it putrefies and rots off; and, with the Fat, he anoints his Body from time to time, till it is all spent. Nor are the Women less reverenced by the Neighbourhood, or intitled to the like Privileges, when the adored Fly lights upon their Hut.

Customs. The Hottentot Men cover their Heads with Handfuls of Grease and Soot mixed Hottentots. together; and, going without any thing else on their Heads in Summer-time, the Dust sticks to it, and makes them a very filthy Cap; which, they fay, cools them, and proferves their Heads from the scorching Heat of the Sun: And, in Winter, they wear flat Caps of Cat-skin or Lambskin, half dried, which they tie with a Thong of the same Leather under their Chins. The Men also wear a Mantle made of a Sheep-skin, or other Skin, over their Shoulders, which reaches to the middle: In Winter they turn the woolly or hairy Sides next their Flesh, and in Summer the other. They wear a greafy Pouch about their Necks, in which are kept a Knife, Pipe and Tobacco, and fome Dacha, which intoxicates like Tobacco, and a little Piece of Wood burnt at both Ends, as a Charm against Witchcraft: He wears also three large Ivory Rings on his Left Arm, to which he faftens a Bag of Provisions when he travels, carrying then a Stick blunt at both Ends, and about three Feet long, also a Dart, to throw at an Enemy, or wild Beaft; which he feldom misses, if he be within Distance. another thing peculiar to the Men; and that is, the Bladder of any wild Beast they have killed, being blown up, is fattened to the Hair, as a Trophy of their Valour. The Vot. I.

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Women wear Caps, the Crowns whereof are a little raifed; and these are made also of half-dried Skins, and tied under their Chins: They scarce put them off Night or Day, Winter or Summer: They usually wear two Mantles, one upon another, made of Sheep-skins, or other Skins, which are sometimes bordered with a Fringe of raw Leather; and as these are only fastened with Thongs about their Necks, they appear naked down to the middle; but they have an Apron larger than that of the Mens, to cover them before, and another, of still larger Dimensions, to cover their Back-sides. About their Legs they wrap Thongs of half-dried Skins, to the Thickness of a Jack-boot, which are fuch a Load to them, that they lift up their Legs with Difficulty, and walk very much like a Trooper in Jack-boots. They serve for a Distinction of Sex. and Ornament; but this is not all their Finery; for, if they are Women of any Figure, instead of Sheep-skins, they wear a Tyger-skin, or a Mantle made of wild Cat-skins: They have also a Pouch hanging about their Necks, in which they carry fomething to eat, whether they are at Home or Abroad. The Arms of both with their Dacha, Tobacco and Pipe. Men and Women are fometimes covered with Bracelets made of Glass or Brass Beads from the Wrist to the Elbow. As Part of their Dress, or Ornament, we may reckon the Custom of daubing their Bodies, and the Inside of their Caps and Mantles, with Greafe and Soot: for, from their Infancy, and almost every Day of their Lives after, they practise this, not only to render them of a deeper Black, but to make their Limbs pliable and supple. Nor are they Dict. more cleanly in their Diet, than in their Dress, for they chuse the Guts and Entrails of Cattle. and of some wild Beasts, with very little cleansing, rather than the rest of the Flesh, and cat their Meat half-boiled in the Blood of the Beaft, or broiled; but their principal Food confifts of Roots, Herbs, and Fruits: They feldom kill any of their Cattle, unless at a Festival; they only feed on such as die of old Age, or Diseases, or what they take in Hunting: And, when they are hard put to it, they will eat the raw Leather that is wound about the Womens Legs, and even the Soles of Shoes; and, as the Mantles of the poorer fort are always well stocked with Lice of an unusual Size, they are not ashamed to sit down in the publick Streets at the Cape, pull off the Lice, and eat them. The usual Drink of these People is Cows Milk, and the Women sometimes drink Ewes Milk; but this the Men never touch: And, fince

fince the Arrival of the Europeans amongst them, the Natives are very fond of Wine, Brandy, and other spirituous Liquors. Their Furniture confifts of little Furniture. more than their Mantles, which they lie on, some other Skins of wild Beafts they have killed, or purchased, an earthen Pot they boil their Meat in, their Arms, and perhaps fome other trivial Utenfils. As to the Marriages of these People, every young Fellow has Marriages. fuch a Regard to the Advice of his Father, or rather the Customs of the Country require it, that he always consults the old Man, before he enters into any Treaty with his Miffress. And, when the Match is approved of on all Sides, the young People retire together, and, without any farther Ceremony, become Man and Wife. The next Day the Bridegroom kills a fat Ox, or more, according to his Circumstances, for the Wedding Dinner, and the Entertainment of their Friends, who refort to them on this Occasion, bringing abundance of good Wishes for the Happiness of the married Couple, as is usual in politer Countries. The Ox is no fooner killed, but all the Company get fome of the Fat, and greafe themselves with it from Head to Foot, powdering themselves afterwards with a Dust they call Buchu; and the Women, to add to their Charms, make red Spots on their black Faces, with a red Earth or Stone, which is thought to add to their Beauty by the Natives; but in the Eyes of the Europeans, render them more frightful and shocking than they naturally are. The Entertainment being ready, the Men form one Circle in the Kraal, and the Women another; the Bridegroom fitting in the Middle of the Mens Circle, and the Bride in the Center of that of her own Sex. The Priest, as he is called, enters the Mens Circle, and p-s upon the Bridegroom, which the young Man rubs in very joyfully. Then the old Fellow goes to the Ladies Circle, where he does the Bride the fame Favour, and the rubs in the Urine in the like manner: and thus he goes from the Bride to the Bridegroom, till he has exhausted all his Store, bestowing many good Wishes on them all the time; as, That they may live long and happily together; that they may have a Son before the Year's End; and that he may prove a brave Fellow, and an expert Huntiman, and the like." After which the Meat is served up in Earthen Pots glaz'd with Grease; and the greatest Part of them make use of their Teeth and Claws, pulling it to pieces, and eating as voraciously as so many Dogs; having no other Plates or Napkins, than the stinking Corners of the Mantles they wear. When the Feast is over,

each Circle lights a Pipe of Tobacco, which is handed round, and, when it is out, another: Thus they continue imoking, and talking merrily on the Occasion, till towards Break of Day, when the Company disperse.

Of the African ISLES.

SITUATION.] THE chief of the African Islands are the Azores, the Madeira, the Canary Islands, the Island of Cape Verd, the Island of Afrension, St. Matthew, Annaboa, St. Thomas, Princess Island, and the Island of Fernando Po; all these lie on the North-west and South-west of Africa: Also Badmandal, Zocatara, the Islands of Common, Prince Maurice's Island, or the Mauritius, the Island of Bourbon, and that of Madagascar; all which lie in the Indian Ocean Eastward of the Continent of Africa.

CLIMATE. Malingafiar is a fruitful Country, abounding in Cattle, Corn, Fish, Fowl, Herbs, Roots, and Flowers; and almost all manner of Animals Madagajcar and Vegetables, that are to be found on the neighbouring Continent of Africa, may be met with here. As to the Face of the Country, it is univerfally agreed, that it affords a pleafing Variety of Hills and Valleys, Woods and Champain, and is well watered with Springs and Rivers; and that there are feveral good Harbours on the Coaft. But still it is found not to produce any kind of Merchandize, which can induce any one European Nation to attempt the Conquest of it, or fix any considerable Colonies Bourbon. Bourbon is finely diversified with Mountains and Plains, Forests and Champain Fields: It has Plenty of Wood and Water, and a fruitful Soil, except one Part of the Island, which has been burnt up, and rendered barren, by a Vulcano, or fubterraneous Fires. Island produces Black Cattle, Hogs, Goats, Tortoises, tame and wild Fowl, Oranges and Lemons, and other The Mauri-Fruits, Roots and Herbs. The Mauritius abounds tius. in Woods of various kinds, particularly Ebony. There are also abundance of very high Mountains, from The Soil does not whence their Rivers fall in Torrents. feem proper for Corn or Wine; however, Rice and Pulse, Sugar-canes and Tobacco, are raifed here, though in no great Quantities. The Island of Joanna, Monnie. one of the Islands of Comerce, the most frequented by the Europeans, produces great Plenty of Black Cattle and Goats; Fowle, Rice, Potatoes, Honey, Wax, Oranges,

Lemons,

Lemons, Pine-apples, Cocoa-nuts, and other Fruits. Notwithstanding St. Helena, on every Pine-apples, Cocoa-nuts, and other St. Helena. Side, appears to be a hard barren Rock, yet, on the Top, it is covered with a fine Earth a Foot or a Foot and a half deep, which produces all manner of Grain, Grass, Fruit, Herbs, Roots, and Garden-stuff: And the Country, beyond the Ascent of the Rock, is prettily diversified with rifing Hills and Plains, adorned with Plantations of Fruittrees and Kitchen-gardens, among which the Houses of the Inhabitants are interspersed: They abound in Cattle, Hogs, Goats, Turkeys, and all manner of Poultry; and their Seas are very well stored with Fish. But the Missortune is, they have neither Bread nor Wine of their own Growth; for though the Soil is extremely proper for Wheat, yet the Rats, which harbour in the Rocks, and cannot be destroyed, eat up all the Seed, before the Grain is well out of the Ground; And though their Vines flourish, and afford them Grapes enough, yet the Latitude is too hot for making Wine; for it feems, neither cold nor very hot Countries agree with this Liquor. St. Jago is rocky and St. Jag. mountainous; but the Valleys produce Indian Corn, Cocoa-nuts, Oranges, and fuch other Fruits, Plants, and Roots, as are common to hot Countries; also Hogs, and Poultry, in great abundance. Goats Teneriff affords Corn, Wine, and Fruits, in great Teneriff. abundance, though 'tis pretty much incumbered Madeira. with Rocks and Mountains. Madeira confifts of fine rifing Hills, and fruitful Valleys, well watered by the Rivulets, which fall from the Mountains, though abounding much more in Wine, than Corn. The Climate here is much more temperate than that of the Canaries; but they do not enjoy so clear a Sky, or that Plenty of Corn and Fruits. The Island of St. Michael is pretty mountainous, but produces Plenty of Corn, Fruits, Cattle, Fish, and Fowl, and they have a thin Sort of Wine; their greatest Wants are Oil and Tercera is also pretty much incumbered with Rocks and Mountains; but affords, however, Plenty of good Corn, Pasture, and an excellent Breed of Cattle; and has also pretty many Vineyards.

Religion of the Natives of Madagascar,

is a Mixture of Makometanism, Judaism, and Paganism.

CURIOSITIES.] The Isle of Tenerist is remarkable for its

prodigious Pike, which is thought by curious Naturalists, to have been raised by some terrible Constagration in Nature. U 3

It is faid, that the Top of it, which is in the Form of a Sugar-loaf, may be feen plainly above the Clouds at 120 Miles Diffance. My Author affirms, that after twenty-four Hours fail from it, with a brifk Gale of Wind, he faw it with the naked Eve, as plainly as if it had lain within half a Mile of him. By all Accounts it is a supplifing Heap in Consusion: Broken and calcin'd Rocks lie three or sour Miles round the Bottom of this amazing Ruin.

A MERICA.

BEFORE I proceed to Particulars, I shall present my young Reader with a short Account of the Discovery of

America by the Spaniards.

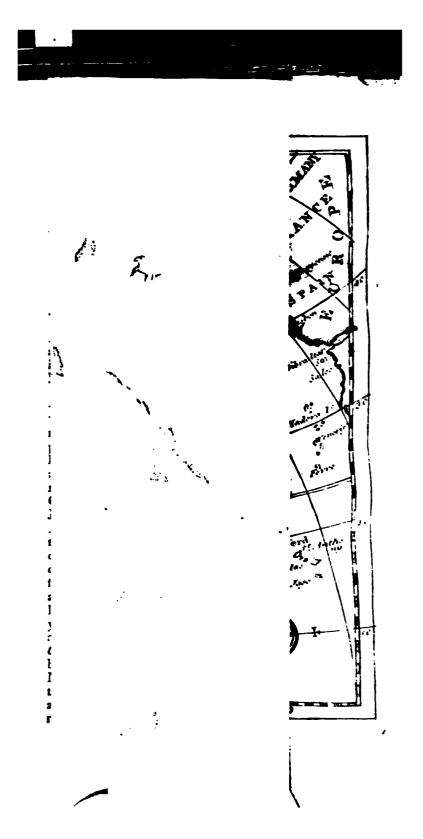
Christopher Columbus, a Native of the State of Genea, was

in feveral Sea-Engagements against the Turks, the Venetians, and other Nations; in one of which, the Ship he was in being burnt near the Coast of Portugal, he had the good Fortune to escape to Shore upon a Plank; and, coming to Lifton, found several of his Countrymen and Discours of Acquaintance fettled in that City; with whom he relided fome time, and afterwards made feveral Voyages with the Portuguese to the North and South, and particularly to Guinea on the Coast of Africa. He apply d himself chiefly to the Study of Cosmography, Astronomy, and Geography; and from his Youth, appeared to have a more than common Passion to understand the State of all Countries upon the Face of the Globe, and to make new Discoveries; which probably was his Reason for settling at Liston, no Nation having pushed their Discoveries farther than the Portuguese at that Time. And here he was perpetually drawing Maps and Charts, in which he received great Encouragement from that enterprising People: Celumbus, having failed a long time in the Portuguese Service, married and settled at Lifem, and advanced his Fortune there. By his perfiffing long in the Resolution of failing in Search of a Country beyoud the Atlantick Ocean, and applying to fo many Princes and States for their Assistance, one would be inclined to think, Columbus had some Certainty, or at least a very high Probability, of his fucceeding in this Attempt; otherwise for a Man to fail so many thousand Miles upon an Occan till then efteemed boundless, must have been looked upon rather as rash Temerity, than Wisdom. But, whatever Inducements Columbus had for his attempting these Discoveries 11 el-



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Westward, he proposed finding out a Way to the East-Indies by the Western Ocean, to King John of Portugal; and gave such substantial Reasons for the Attempt, that the King feemed to think the Thing very probable, though he did not like the Terms this Adventurer proposed. At several times he made Application to the Genoese, and Henry VII. of England, to grant him some Ships, in order to make a Discovery of these new Countries, and to bear the Expence of his Voyage; but the Courts he applied himself to, would have trested him no better than they usually do a common Projector, had he not obtained some Reputation for his Knowledge in Cosmography, and Navigation. As he was a Person of Prudence and Temper, he was not discouraged either with the Refusal he met with, or disbliging Behaviour to him; but applied himself to Ferdinand and Isabella, King and Queen of Cuffile and Arragon, who, in the Year 1492 provided him with Money, and entrusted him with the equippin and fitting out three small Ships for the Expedition: He also obtained a Grant from their Majestics to be Admiral of the Western Seas, that all Civil Employments, as well as Governments, in the Continent or World to be discovered, should be wholly at his Disposal; and, besides the Revenues of the Posts of Admiral and Vicerov, he should enjoy a tenth of all the Profits arising by future Conquests in those yet unknown Lands. All things being ready, his little Squadron, manned only with ninety Men, set sail from Palos for the Canaries, the third of August 1492, and arrived at those Islands the twelfth, and sailed from thence the first of September upon his grand Design He had not sailed a Fortnight in this wide Ocean to the Westward, before his Men began to murmur at the Enterprize; for they observed the Wind constantly set from East to West, and apprehended there would be no Possibility of returning, if they missed the Land they were made to expect. But on the nineteenth, observing fome Birds to fly over their Ships, and, on the twenty-second, abundance of Weeds driving by them, they began to be better fatisfied, and concluded they were not far from Land. But, continuing their Course still several Days farther Westward, and meeting with no Land, the Scamen mutiny'd to that Degree, that they had almost agreed to throw the Admiral over board, and return Home; when, fortunately for him, they faw fome Birds, Weeds, Pieces of Board, Canes, and a Shrub with the Berries upon it also swim by them, which made them conjecture there must be some Islands thereabouts. It

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was on Thursday the eleventh of October 141 Land field about ten at Night, that the Admiral first c discovered. covered a Light upon the Island of Guanaban or, St. Salvador, as the Admiral named it, in Confiderati that the Sight of it delivered him and his Men from the Fe of perifling. The Day appearing, the Ships came to Anchor very near the Island; when the Natives came do crouding to the Shore, and beheld the Ships of these ne Comers with unspeakable Astonishment. The Admiral, I lieving there was no great Danger to be apprehended fro them, went ashore in his Boat with the Royal Standard, did the other two Captains with their Colours flying, and to Possession of the Country in the Name of their Catho Majesties, with great Solemnity. The Indians in the me time stood gazing at the Spaniards, without attempting oppose them, while they were thus taking Possession of the Country. The Admiral ordered some Strings of Glass Bea Caps, and Toys, to be diffributed amongst the Natives, which they seemed infinitely pleased: The principal Orname about them was a thin Gold Plate, in the Form of Crefcent, which hung from the Nofe over the upper L The Admiral, demanding, as well as he could, by Sig: from whence they had their Gold Plates, they pointed to t South and South-west; whereupon he rowed in his Boa about the Island, to discover if there were any thing wor his fettling there, being followed by the Natives every whe who feemed to adore him and his People, as if they we come from Heaven. From this Island he failed to Cuba, a from hence to Hippaniola, and departed thence towar Europe; and arrived at Palis in Andalufia on the thirteen of March 1492-3, having fet out from thence the third August before, making his Vovage to the New World in sev Months and eleven Days. Here the People received hi with a folernn Procession and Thanksgiving for his Return most of his Seamen, it seems, belonging to the Port. Catholic Majesties being at Barcelona, when the Admi drew near the City, the Court went out to meet him, and was received with the Honours due to a Sovereign Princ nor was it easy to determine, whether the Admiral had greer Satisfaction in relating, or their Majesties in hearing, t Discoveries he had made in the New World. As to the Tit and Manner of Peopling America, all that we know certain is, that it has been planted many hundred, or rather thousa of Years, from the Number of People found there when t

Country was discovered. It is highly probable also, that those Parts were planted very early, because they seemed Strangers to almost every Art and Science, when the Spaniards came amongst them; and, for the same Reason, we may be assured, no Adventurers arrived there in these latter Ages, before the celebrated Columbus. Men might pass from the Canary or Cafe Verd Islands to America, in Shipping, by being driven by the constant Easterly Winds; but how Beasts, and other Animals, came hither, remains difficult to account.

Of the British Empire in AMERICA.

HE British Empire in America contains, I. On the Continent. 1. Carolina and Georgia. 2. Virginia. Maryland. 4. Pensylvania. 5. New-Jersey. 6. New-York. 7. New-England and Scotland. II. British Isles in America. 1. Newfoundl nd. 2 Jamaica. 3. Providence 4. Barbadoes. 5. Tolago. 6. Antegoa. 7. St. Christophers. 8. Bermudas. 9. Long Isle. 10. Rhode Isle.

CLIMATE.] Carolina is happily fituated between the Extremes of Heat and Cold; but the Heat is more

troublesome in Summer, than the Cold in Win- Caroffina.

ter. At a Distance Virginia appears to be a low Land, infomuch that the Trees feem to grow out of the Wa-

ter; and, for an hundred Miles up in the Country, there is scarce an Hill, or a Stone, to be Virginia.

met with; only in some Places, Rocks of Iron

Ore appear; and, in others, there are Banks of petrified Ovster-fliclls, some of them above twenty Yards deep. The whole Country, before it was planted, was either Forests, or Bogs and Morasses; and such the greatest Part is at present.

The Air and Seasons depend very much on their Winds, as to Heat and Cold, Dryness and Moisture. The

Air of Maryland is excessive hot some Part of the Summer, and equally cold in Winter, when the North-west Wind blows. The Air of Pen-

stiania is sweet and clear; the Heavens serene, like the Southern Parts of France, rarely overcast.

The Air in New-Yerley and New-York is colder in Winter, and hotter in Summer, than in Eng- New-Jeifen land: The North and North-west Winds are ex-

ceeding cold; but the Air both in Winter and Summer more fettled and ferene than with us:

And indeed the Weather is always more variable in Islands than

Perfylvania.

than on the Continent, and usually warmer in Winter. The Winds in New-Engla d are variable as with us, and very boisterous in the Winter Scason: The North and Niw-North-west Winds are exceeding cold, blowing England. over a long Tract of frozen Countries. Their Winters are much feverer, and fome Months longer, than ours, though they lie nine or ten Degrees nearer the Sun than we do; however, their Heaven is usually brighter, and their Weather more settled, than in England, both in Winter and Summer; and the Summer, though shorter than with us, is much hotter whilst it lasts. Notwithstanding the Island of Newfoundland lies more to the Islands, wz. Newfound Southward than England, the Winters are much colder, and the Ground covered with Snow for a great Depth for four or five Months annually, informuch that it is scarce habitable, when the Sun is in the The outward Face of Jamaica feems to be Southern Signs. different from what is observable in Europe; the Jamaica. Valleys in this Island being very level, with little or no rifing Ground, or small Hills, and without Rocks or Stones. The mountainous Part is generally very steep, and furrowed by very deep Gullies on the North and South Sides of the highest Hills. Earthquakes are too common In 1692 one of these dismal Events happened, and, in two Minutes, destroyed most of the Town of Port-Royal, and near 1500 Souls perished: The Fall of the Mountains made a terrible Crack, and at the same time dreadful Noise were heard under the Earth. This Earthquake was general all over the Island, and, on the North Side of the Island, above a thousand Acres were sunk with the People in them; the Place appearing like a Lake, was afterwards dried up, but no Signs of the Houses were to be feen Barbaters. Barbadoes is a plain level Country for the most part, with some small Hills of an easy Ascent They have generally fine ferene Weather here; their Rains fall as in other Parts of the torrid Zone, chiefly when the Sun is vertical: Their Heats are not fo excessive as in the fame Latitude on the Continent, being constantly refreshed by the Sea-breezes in the Day-time, which increase as the

in Tobago, is much commended. The Bermudas enjoy a pure Air, and temperate Climate, their Heat being moderated by constant Sea-breezes; the whole

ture of the Air, and the Fruitfulness of the Soil,

Sun advances, and abate as the Sun declines.

The Tempera-

all

ear is like the latter End of a fine May in England; flands are reforted to for Health, as the Montpelier of nor are they more remarkable for their Health, than

ity.

RNMENT.] As to the Government of is in Virginia, this is formed upon the idel as that of England, and has a very imblance of it. The Colonies of Caro-Royal Governments, and modelled now of England. A Patent passed the Seals appointing several Gentlemen Trustees Planting of a new Province called Governments.

Seals *Georgia*. Iftees

Virginia.

Carolina.

Planting of a new Province called Georgia, to be t of the South Part of South-Carolina In Novem-2, Mr. Oglethorpe, one of the Trustees, sailed eral English Families to Georgia, and, arriving at al in Carolina with his People, thence proceeded to the Town of Savannah. Lord Baltimore, in the 33, went over in Person to plant Mary-

ut, at the Revolution, the then Lord was deprived of the Power of appoint-

vernor, and other Officers; and the Government of ince fell under the same Regulations as other Plantatiare immediately subject to the Crown: The Baltimore so were in Danger of losing their Propriety, on actheir Religion, by the Act which requires all Robolic Heirs to profess the Protestant Religion, on pain deprived of their Estates: But that Family thought offs the Protestant Religion, rather than lose their ce; and the present Proprietor enjoys one of the Estates belonging to the Subjects of Great Britain.

ngs, and those by Succession, but always Pensylvania. Mother's Side. King Charles II. in the

Var, transferred all those Countries, then in Possession Dutch, viz. New-York, the Jerseys, and the Norart of Pensylvania, to his Brother James Duke of erwards King James II. And Sir Robert Carr was r with a Squadron of Men of War, and a Body of rees, to reduce them; and, on his Appearance beserdam, now New-York, the Dutch Governor thought rrender the Capital, and the rest of the Towns in the 1 of the Hollanders; and the Swedes followed his Ex-The Duke of York parcelling out these Countries to roprietors, among whom William Penn, Esq; Son Villiam Penn, Admiral in the Dutch Wars, was one,

all the rest of the Proprietors some time after surrendered their Charters again to the Crown; whereby New-York and New-Jersey became Royal Governments, while Penn remained Proprietor of that Part of the Country which had been granted to him: King Charles II. making him another Grant in the Year 1680, of that Part of the Country, which now constitutes the rest of Penfylvania, in Consideration of Money due to his Father, Sir William Penn, from the Government, Mr. Penn, notwithstanding the Grants he had obtained, from the Crown, and the Duke of York, did not look upon hunfelf, it feems, to be real Proprietor of the Lands granted him, till he had given the Indians what they effects'd a valuable

Confideration for their Interest in them. The Colony increafed prodigiously in a very few Years; which Success was owing to their humane and friendly Treatment of the Indians, with whom the Pensylvanians scarce ever had a Quarrel.

New-York and New-Jerfey have usually the same New York Governor appointed by the King, the Colonies and Newimmediately depending on the Crown; also his Majesty appoints the Council, and other Offices Jefy.

New Erg-

land.

of State; and the People only elect the Representatives, as in England. By the Constitution of the Massachust Colony, the most considerable of the New-Eng-

land Colonies, the Appointment of the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary, and all the Officers of the Admiralty, is vested in the Crown; the Power of the Militia is wholly in the Hands of the Governor, as Captain General; all Judges, Justices, and Sheriffs, to whom the Execution of the Law is entrusted, are nominated by the Governor, with: the Advice of the Council; and the Governor has a Newtive on the Choice of Counsellors peremptory and unlimited; and he is not obliged to give a Reason for what he does in this Particular, or restrained to any Number: All Laws, eneded by the General Assembly, are to be sent to the Court of England for the Royal Approbation. By these Reservations, it is faid, the Prerogative of the Crown, and the Dependence of the Colony, are effectually secured. Newfan New foundland was claimed as Part of the Dominions of

Great Britain, by virtue of Calet's Discovery of it in the Reign of Henry VII. and some Voyages that were made thither in the succeeding Reigns by English Adventurers; but they making no Settlements there, the Partners and French used to fish upon the Banks; whereupon the Eng lish revived their Claim to the Country again, and actually feized several Pertuguese Ships on the Coast of Newsearding

bringing

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bringing them to England as lawful Prizes. In the Year 1610, King James I. made a Grant to the Earl of Northampton, and others, of that Part of the Island, which lies between Cape Bonavista, and Cape St. Mary's; and the Grantees, being incorporated, and formed into a Company, fent a Colony thither; but the Severity of the Weather, Sickness. and Scarcity of Provisions, obliged the Planters to return to England. But the English still insisted on the sole Right of fishing on the Coast; and, having a Squadron of Men of War sent thither for their Protection in the Reign of King James I. drove all others from thence: But in the Reign of King Charles II. the French were suffered to settle in Placentia, and afterwards possessed themselves of great Part of the Island. Famaica was discovered by Columbus in his second Voyage to America, and planted by the Spaniards Jamaica. some few Years afterwards; and remained in the Possession of the Crown of Spain till 1656, when Admiral Penn, and General Venables, being fent by the Usurper Cromwell to reduce Hispaniola, and being disappointed in that Attempt, to save their Credit, invaded Jamaica, and made a complete Conquest of it; and the Spiniards have yielded and confirmed it to Great Britain by a subsequent Treaty of Peace. The Government of Barbadoes resembles that of Jamaica, and the rest of our American Islands, Barbaltes. which we shall have occasion to mention under the Head of Trade.

TRADE.] I shall here inquire into the Trade and Importance of the British Dominions in America. The chief Exports of South Carolina are Rice,

Deer-skins, Pitch, Tar, Turpentine, Tobacco, Beef, Pork, tanned Leather, Cedar Wood, Deal Boards, Pipe Staves, Timber of all Sorts, Masts, Yards, &c. They produce and ship off yearly about 60,000 Barrels of Rice, each containing about four Hundred Weight neat; they have shipped off also about 70,000 Deer-skins at a Medium so many Years past. They have very little Shipping of their own in Carolina; however, they load about 200 Sail of Ships yearly at Charles-town, and at some other Towns, they trade with the Indians for Deer-Ikins, and Bear and Buffaloe-Ikins, for which they give them Guns, Powder, Knives, Sciffars, Looking-glasses, Beads, and many other Trifles, and some coarfe Cloths, Strouds, Duffields, and coarfe Calicoes, &c. for their Women; and they carry them on Pack-horses for 5 or 600 Miles to the Westward of Charles-town: Though they go

fo fat ('tis but feldom) the most of their Trade being confined within the Limits of the Creek and Charokee Nations, which is not above 300 Miles. It seems, that North Carolina produces a good Quantity of Tobacco, and but little Rice; and South Carolina, on the contrary, produces vast Quantities of Rice, and little Tobacco; but as to the rest of the Produce, they are pretty much the same. Carolina produces also most Sorts of Fruits, and Variety of English Grain, in

great Abundance. Virginia produces most Sorts of Roots, and defirable Fruits, with physical Plants and Herbs, in great Plenty; but, above all, a great Quantity of Tobacco, so much used all the World over. Their only foreign Trade worth mentioning, is that to England; and that indeed is very great, and very profitable to England. They have also a Trade to the Leaward Isles, whither they fend Lumber, Corn, and Flesh; for which they take Rami Sugar, and Melaffes, in Return. England takes from them, not only what Tobacco we use at Home, but very great Quantities for Re-exportation, which may properly be faid to be the furest Way of enriching this Kingdom. They take from England their Clothing Houshold Goods, Iron Manufactures of all Sorts, Saddles, Bridles, Brass and Copper Wares, and also Turners Wares; so that it is a very great Number of People in England, that are employed to provide a sufficient. Supply of Goods for the Tobacco Plantations. Befides Tobacco, we take from the Virginians Pitch and Tar, Decry fkins, and Furs of feveral Sorts, Snake-weed, Walnut-tree

Maryland. Plank, Pipe, Hogshead, and Barrel Staves, and fome Iron in Piggs. As the Province of Maryland feems not to be behind, or inferior to Virginia, and

as little can be said of one Province, which the other dother not deserve, or is not capable of, I will say something of them together; for though they do not both belong to the Crown immediately, yet they seem to be of equal Value to this Kingdom. Let us suppose, what is within Bounds, that from these two Colonies we receive 60,000 Hogsheads of Tobacco yearly, then the Shipping employed to bring Home this Tobacco will be at least 24,000 Tons: The neat Produce of the Tobacco will be at least 24,000 Tons: The neat Produce of the Tobacco will be 225,000 Pounds, which we will suppose ordered to be returned in Goods; yet out of that there will remain at least Five per Cent. Commission and petty Charges, which is 11,250 Pounds. The Value of Lumber annually important from those two Provinces is not less, it seems, than 15,000 Pounds; and the Skins and Furs from thence we cannot estimate

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estimate at less than 6000 Pounds per Annum. The Produce of the delightful Country of Pensylvania is chiefly Pensylvania. Wheat, Flour, Bread, Barrel-Beef, Pork, Hams, Bacon, Cheese, Butter, Soap, Myrtle-Wax, Caudles, Starch, Hair Powder, Cyder, Strong Beer, Tanned Leather, Linseed Oil, Cordial Waters, Deer-skins, Beaver, Otter, Fox, and other Skins, and some Tobacco. They export also Lumber, as saw'd Boards, and Timber for building Houses, Cypress, Pipe, Hogshead, and Barrel Staves; Masts, Yards, &c. Drugs, as Salafras, Snake-root, &c. To thew the Advantage arising from this Province to this Kingdom, let us suppose, what is a pretty constant Practice: A Londoner, or any Englishman, lays out here in our Manufactures to the Value of 500 Pounds; it will purchase there 6666 Bushels of Wheat; which, sent to Lisbon at 4 Shillings per Bushel, will come to 1333 Pounds, 4 Shillings, which is sure to be sent Home to England at last, if not immediately; and it is of the fame Advantage for Remittance or Exchange, as any fuch Sum produced by Goods or Merchandize fent from hence directly. It is pretty common for the Captain, if the Ship be Plantation built, to have Orders to fell the Ship, if he can get a certain Price for it, which often happens; and in that Case, generally, the whole Produce of Ship and Cargo is fent to England; and, if it was not the Property of Englishmen refiding in England, it is always ordered to be laid out in Goods, all of the Manufacture of this Kingdom, or such as are imported here, and sent to Pensylvenia. In another Branch this Province is also of fignal Advantage to us; for all the Money they get by trading with the Dutch, French, Spaniards, or any others, which are not inconfiderable Sums, are fent directly hither. It is computed, that, as many of their Sloops make several Trips in the Year, they cannot export less annually than 12,000 Tons of their own Commodities. Besides their own Produce, they frequently fend us Logwood, Sugar, Rice, Pitch, Tar, and Train-Oil; in fine, whatever they think we want, or they can spare: And as there are in the City of Philadelphia many Merchants of Ability, and good Capacity, they carry their Trade into all Parts, where Gain and Advantage are to be made. It has been computed, that 60,000 Pounds in Cash have been annually remitted into England, for which there were always ordered Goods and Manufactures from this Kingdom only. Whatever is faid above of *Pensylvania*, with regard

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New-Y:rk and New- $\mathcal{J}\sigma_i$

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regard to its Produce and Trade, may be faid of New-Jersey and New York, except that they do not build fo many Ships: They lend fewer Ships to England it is thought, yet those richer, as they

deal for more Skins and Furs with the Indians. Countries fend us all the Money which they can by any of their Trades; they do not take less from us than Pensivania, and are, in all respects, of equal Advantage to us. New-England takes from us all Sorts of Woollen New-Erg-1.4...

Manufactures, Linen, Sail-Cloth, and Cordage; for rigging their Ships, Haberdashery, &c. To have Money to pay for what they want of us, they are forced to vifit the Spanish Coast, where they pick up any Commodity they can grade for: They carry Lumber and Provisions to the Sugar-Plantations; exchange Provisions for Logwood with Logwoodcutters at Campechey: They fend Pipe and Barrel Staves, and Fish, to Spain, Portugal, and the Streights. It is computed, that, by the New-England Trade, there are not less than 600 Sail of Ships and Sloops employed; one half of which trade of Europe; and also, that, by the Fisheries, and in the Shipping together, there are not less than from five to fix thou-fand Men employed. It is presumed, that the Trade we have to New-England is andvatageous and profitable to England; for it feems, they take from us annually, of our Manufactures, and Linens imported here, also India Goods, &c. to the Value of 400,000 Pounds, for which they remit to us their Gold and Silver; and we also take from them Pitch, Tar, and Turpentine, with some Skins, &c.

Newf.und-Newfoundland is of a prodigious Advantage to us: land. It is computed, that we take, one Year with another, about Two hundred thousand Quintals of Fish there, which will fell for One hundred and twenty thousand Pounds clear of all Charges, and which may be reckoned clear Gain to this Kingdom; for the Oil would pay for Salt, &c. and all this Sum is actually got by our Labour, and is of more Service to the Kingdom, by breeding useful Scamen, than if so much were to be dug out of the Mine by a thousandth Part of the Labour. From Newfoundland we have great Quantities of Skins and Furs, namely Seal, Deer, Fox, Otter, Minx, and Bear skins, likewise some Beaver, &c. We shall

be able to form some Judgment of the Importance of Jamaica, by the Quantity of its own Produce shipped off annually to us; namely, in

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Sugar, 10,000 Tons; in Cotton, Indico, Ginger, Pimento, Rum, Lime-juice, Cocoa, Mahogany-Wood, &c. 2000 more. By this it will appear, that there is not less than 12000 Tons of our own Shipping constantly employed in that Service only, over and above what is employed between that Island and the Northern Plantations. They take from us all Sorts of Cloathing, both Linen, Silks, and Woollen, wrought Iron, Brats, Copper; all Sorts of Houshold Furniture, &c. The Trade of the other Sugar Colonies is vastly profitable, of which Barbadoes is an Instance; for it appeared to the Parliament in 1730, that this Island exported Barbadoes, 22,769 Hogsheads of Sugar into England, valued and the other sugar Planat 340,396 Pounds; and that this was the net tations, viz. Profit, because it was admitted, that the Rum Antegoa, St. and Melasses of a Sugar Plantation bear the Christopher, Charges of it. We may from hence conclude, Newis, Mont-that the net Product of all the Sugar Colonies brought into the Ports of Great Britain must be an immense Sum to England. Besides this considerable Article of Sugar. these Islands produce great Quantities of Cotton, Ginger, Indico, Aloes, &c. which are all brought to Great Britain, where the whole Profit of all our Plantations Product does and must center. They have been, and perhaps are, equal, it is fail, to the Mines of the Spanish West-Indies; and have contributed in a particular Manner to the Trade, Navigation, and Wealth, of this Kingdom. It is calculated, that there are 300 Sail of Ships fent from Great Britain every Year to our Sugar Colonies, which are navigated by about 4500 Seamen; and that the Freight, from the Sugars brought here, amounts to 170,000 Pounds a Year; and the Duties, Commissions, &c. to little less than 200,000 Pounds more, which upon the Whole, is about 1,200,000 Pounds a Year Profit to Great Britain, befides the Profit arifing from the other Articles. These Sugar Plantations also take from England all Sorts of Cloathing, both Linen, Silks, and Woollen, wrought Iron, &c. as Jumaica; and we receive from them Sugar, Cotton, Ginger, Indico, &c.

Religion. The Indians in Carolina, Virginia, and Maryland, believe in One God, the Creator of all Things, who is infinitely happy in himself, but has little or no Regard for the trifling Concerns of Men; having committed the Government of the World to certain inferior Deities or Demons, to whom therefore the Natives pay their Devotion; and these inserior Deities most of our Travellers have indif

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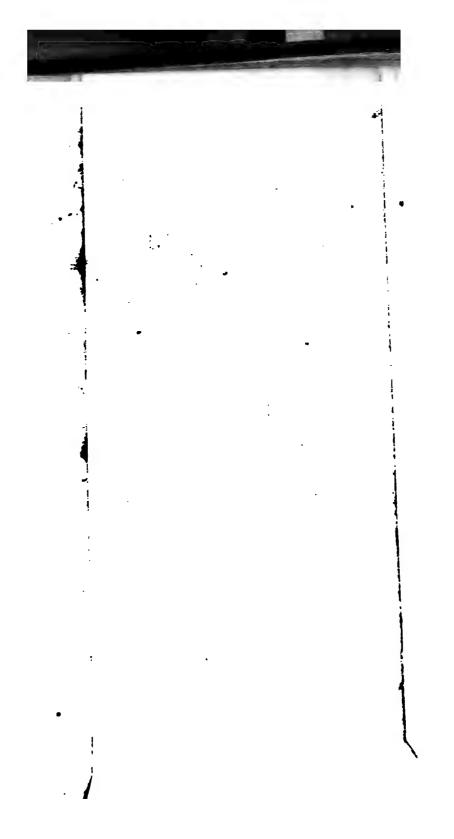
creetly denominated Devils.

Of the Spanish Empire in America.

THE Spanish Empire in America contains, 1 Old-Mexico, or New-Spain. 2. New-Mexico, or Granada. 3. California. 4. Terra-Firma. 5. Peru. 6. Chili. 7. Paragua. 8. Land of Amazons. 9. Magellanica, or Patagonia. 10. Terra del Fuego. 11. Cuba. 12. Hispaniola. (1. French, and 2. Spanish.) 13. Porto-Rico. 14. Florida.

CLIMATE.] Mexico is very much incumbered with Mountains, which are, for the most part, co-

vered with Woods; but there are a Chain of Hills higher than usual, that run almost the whole Length of it, from the South-west to the North-east: Between these Hills and Mountains are many fine fruitful Valleys; but scarce any Plain of a considerable Extent. is very remarkable, that the Mountains on the West Side of Mexico, are most of them Vulcanoes, from whence Fire and Smoke are perpetually iffuing. In every Ocean, whether the Indian, Atlantic, or Pacific, the Wind continually blows from East to West, between the Latitudes of 30 North and South (a little Diffance from Land); only to the Northward of the Equator it inclines to the North-east; and to the Southward of the Equator, South-east; to which Rule there is only this Exception, that under the Line, and for two or three Degrees on each Side, the Winds are variable, and perpetually changing; and fometimes there is so little Wind, and such Calms, under the Equator, that a Ship shall not fail a League in a Month's time. However, upon every Coast almost, within the Latitude of 30 North or South, there are other periodical Winds and Storms, that return at certain Seasons of the Year, called Nicnfoons; and there are, during the fair Seafon, Land and Sea Breezes, which constantly take their Turns at stated Hours every Day, and particularly upon the North and South Coast of Mexico. The Land Breezes begin late here in the Evening, and blow till Six or Seven the next Morning, when they die away infenfibly; and, from that time till near Noon, it is generally calm. About Noon the Sea Breeze rises, and refreshes the Inhabitants, who would otherwise faint with Heat. But the Land Winds are not so hot in Mexico as they are in the East-Indies, where they blow over a long Track of burning Sand: On the contrary 'tis observed, that the Winds, which blow from the Mountains in the middle of this Country, are colder than those that come from the Sca. It is obferved.

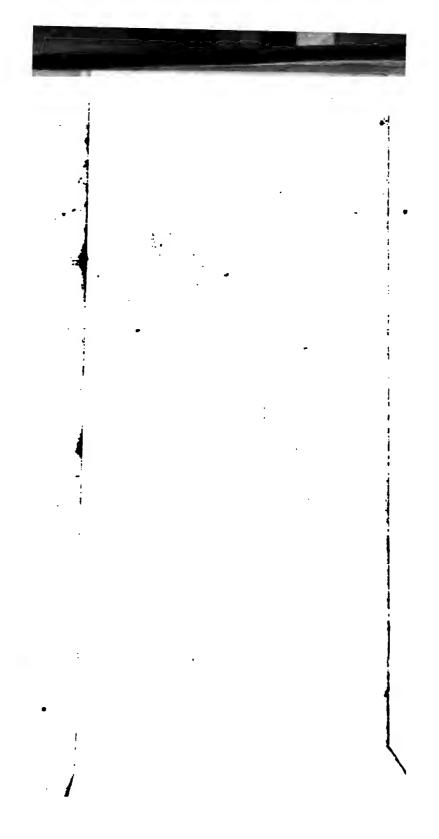


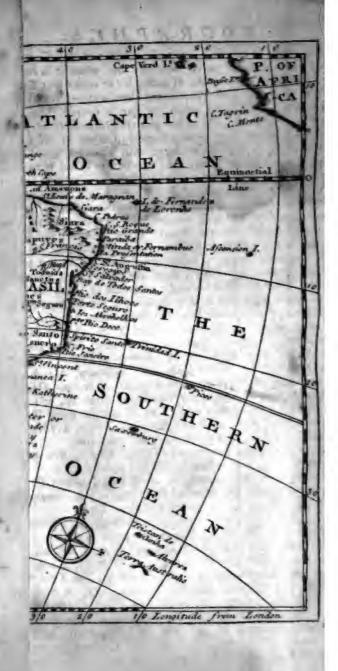
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Sorts &

ferved, that as the Sun approaches either of the Tropics, it carries wet Weather so far with it; and when it is farthest from either Tropic, then the Weather is fair under that Tropic: On the contrary, those People who live without the Tropics, have their fair Weather when the Sun is nearest them, and wet Weather when it is at its greatest Distance from them. In Mexico, their rainy Season begins in April or May, and lasts till September: It is introduced with Thunder and Lightning, Tornadoes and Hurricancs, when the Wind blows almost from every Point of the Compass; but the worst Weather is in June and in July. These Rains, which overflow all the flat Country, the Land and Sca Breezes, which blow alternately, and their numerous Lakes, render the Air cool, and make even the Torrid Zone pleasant; the Heats whereof would otherwise have been insupportable, as the Ancients imagined them. The coldest Part of the Year is in the Months of July and August, when the low Lands lie under Water: Then the Natives really complain of Cold, 'tis faid, Morning and Evening, as they do in the fucceeding Months till February; though the Weather then feems very moderate to an European Constitution. The Tops of the highest Mountains are indeed fornetimes very cold, being covered with Snow, even in 16 or 18 Degrees of North Latitude. The hottest Time of the Year is in February, March, and the Beginning of April; for then the Sun is feldom obscured by Clouds, the Waters are every-where dried up, and it is very difficult then to meet with fresh Water in some Places. This Country produces feveral Kinds of Fruits, as Oranges, Lemons, Citrons, Pomeranates, and other fine Fruits. We know little more of New-Mexico, New-Mexico. than that it is an exceeding fruitful Country, abounding with the same Plants and Animals as our Plantations of Virginia and Carolina do; that it also abounds in rich Silver Mines, and has fome of Gold. There are in California large Plains, pleasant Valleys, California. excellent Pattures at all Times for great and fmall Cattle, fine Springs of running Water, Brooks, and Rivers, with their Panks covered with Willows, Reeds, and wild Vinc. On the Mountains there are all the Year long, Mescales, a Fruit peculiar to this Country: and, in most Seafons, Piflachies of feveral Sorts, and Figs of different Co-The Trees are very beautiful; and, amongst others, the Palo-Santo bears a great deal of Fruit, from which they draw excellent Frankincense. As this Country abounds in Fruits, it does not less in Grain, of which there are fourteen

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Sorts: There are excellent Skirrets, or a fort of red Stratberries, of which the Natives eat plentifully: They have Citrons and Water-melons of an extraordinary Size: The Land is so good, that most Plants, it seems, bear Fruit three times a Year. The Heats in Summer are very great along the Sea-coasts, and it seldom rains; but the Air of the Inland Country is more temperate. It is the same in Winter in Proportion: In the Months of April, May, and June, there falls, with a strong Dew, a fort of Manna, which congeals and hardens upon the Leaves of Reeds; from whence the Natives gather it, and find it as fweet as Sugar, but not altogether for The Climate is extremely healthful, if we may judge of it by the Miffionary Jesuits, and the Spaniards with them; for, during five Years they were in this Country, they continued very well in Health. The Coasts of California are famous for the Pearl-fishery; and it is thought, that there are Mines to be found in feveral Places, if they were fought

Terra-Firma. for. As to Terra-Firma: 1. Terra-Firma Proper has a very unequal Surface, confisting of exceeding high Hills, and long deep Valleys: The Valleys are watered with Rivers, Brooks, and Springs; fome of them fall into the North, others into the South-Sea, most of them having their Sources in a Ridge or Chain of Mountains, that furmount and overtop the other Hills, running the Length of the whole Ishmus, and parallel to the Coast, foreading along, and bending as the Isthmus bends. This vast Ridge of Mountains is nearest the Coast of the North-Sca, seldom more than ten or fifteen Miles distant from it. Travellers observe, when they pass over them, that the high Hills, between these vast Mountains and the South-Sea, were nothing in Comparison of them: That these Hills did not only appear much beneath the high Ridge, but the Clouds were confiderably below them, and intercepted their Sight of the Country; and all the People grew giddy with the Height, when they had climbed to the Top; but this Giddiness went off again as they descended lower. This Province, being very narrow, and lying between two great Oceans, viz. the North and South-Seas, is observed to have more wet Weather, than any other Place within the Torrid Zone. The Rains usually begin here in April or May; in June, July, and August, they are very heavy; and it is extreme hot at this Time, whenever the Sun shines out; there being then no Breezes to cool the Air. In September the Rains begin to abate; but it is November or December, and sometimes January, before the fair Season returns: So that

the Country is very hot for two-thirds, if not three-quar-ters of the Year. But in the wettest Season there are some fair Days, with only a Tornado or Thunder-shower nowand then. The coldest Time of the Year is after the Rains about Christmas, when the fair Weather approaches The Soil of Terra-Firma Proper, or the Ishmus of Darien, is good in the middle of the Province; but both the Shores of the North and South-Seas are generally either a dry, barren Sand, or drowned Land, that will scarce produce any kind o Grain. The Sea-coalls of this Province are commonly unhealthful; and the Mountains, which have Mines in them, produce scarce any thing but Shrubs. 2. St. Martha produces almost all manner of Fruits and Plants, which grow in Old Spain. They have also Mines of Gold and Copper in their Mountains, Emeralds, Sapphires, and many other pre-The Sea-coasts are excessive hot; but their cious Stones. Mountains cool, being covered with Snow, eyen in this warm 3. The Mountains in the Provinces of Venezuela and Caracos are exceeding high, and the Valleys very deep, especially in the Province of Caracos. The Tops of the Hills are barren; but the lower Part of them, and the Valleys between, have a rich Mould; so that here is Plenty of Sugar, Tobacco, Corn, Cattle, and rich Pasture. Their Plantations of Cocoa-nuts are effeemed the best in the Spanish Dominions in America: There are also several Gold Mines in this Province. 4. The Inland Part of Andalusia is mountainous, and covered with Woods, intermixed with Valleys and Meadows, that produce Corn and Pasturage; but it is not near so fruitful as the Provinces of Venezuela and Caracos, or so full of *Towns and Inhabitants: This Country produces most of the fine Fruits which are found in Europe. 5 The Province of Guiana, or Caribiana, is subject to Inundations on the Seacoasts, they lying very low; the Air is excellive hot, and unhealthful, especially in such Parts of the Country as are not cleared of the Woods. 6. New Granada affords yast Variety of Hills, and fruitful Valleys; and is eftermed as healthful as any Part of Terra-Firma: In this Province, it is faid, there are Gold Mines; but as this is an Inland Country, and feldom visited by Foreigners, we have very imperfect Accounts 7. The Province of Popayan has a Chain of barren Mountains, almost impassable, that runs through it from North to South; some of which are Vulcanoes; and in one. of them the Loadstone is found. Towards the Shores of the South-Sea the Land is low and flat; and, as it rains, near three XЗ

quarters of the Year, innumerable Rivers and Torrents fall from the Mountains into the South-Sea, in the Sands whereof is found a great Quantity of Gold Dust; and there are Mines of the same precious Metal in the Mountains, which induces the Spaniards to refide in those Parts, how troublesome soever it may be living under or near the Equator, where the Heat and Rains are extremely unwholfome, as well as uncomfortable. The Face of Peru is very dif-Peru. ferent, as it approaches near, or is distant from, The Country is divided into three narrow Slips, viz. 1. The Lans, which are fandy Plains that run along the Sea-coast. 2. The Sierras, which are Hills beyond those Plains, intermixed with Valleys. 3. The Andes, or Cordeleros, still farther within the Land, which are steep, craggy Mountains, far furpaffing all the rest in Height. The Lands, which lie along the Coast, are about thirty Miles in Breadth; in some Places more, in others less; the Sierras 75 Miles in Breadth; and the Andes something more than 75 Miles over. The Andes and Sierras run parallel to each other from North to South, for above three thousand Miles: Nor are the Lanes low Land, but an high bold Shore; and there is no landing on it, but at the Ports, or in some particular Bays: However, these Plains may be called low in Comparison of the Sierras, and of the Andes, that far surpass both, and are esteemed the highest Land in the known World. The Lanes are perfectly barren, except some few Valleys, into which they turn small winding Streams, and that Part of the Coast, which lies within three or four Degrees of the Equator, where they have very heavy Rains great Part of the Year. The Sierras are also very barren; but then there are very fruitful Vallevs between them, which yield all manner of Grain and Fruits; and these being temperate between the Extremes of Heat and Cold, are best inhabited; for the Lanss by the Sea are, for the most part, excessive hot: The Andes, on the contrary, are cold, barren Mountains, the Snow lying upon them great Part of the Year. In what Place foever People pass the Ander, for upwards of 1500 Miles together, they meet with strange Disorders, but more in some Places than others; and those are more fenfible of the ill Effects, who afcend from the Sea, than those who ascend from the neighbouring Plains. Acosta passed the Anies over one Mountain, called Pariacaca, and four other different Places; and always felt the like Disorder, but not so violently as at Pariacaca; and the best Remedy

they found against it, was to stop their Mouths, Noses, and

GEOGRAPET &c.

Ears, as much as possible, and to cover their Breasts; for the Air was fo fubtle and piercing, that it penetrated the Entraile, not only of Men, but Beafts, Horses having been very much affected by it. And fuch is the Height of the Ander the Pyreness and the Alps are but as ordinary Hills, in Comparison of them; from whence we conclude, that the Air here was too pure and fubtle for Animals to breathe in, they requiring a groffer Medium; and this, Arofta supposed, occasioned that Diforder in the Stomach. The same Writer informs us, that there are other mountainous, uninhabited Defarts in Peru, where a sudden Blast of Air sometimes strikes a Traveller dead in an Inflant. The Spaniards formerly passed these Mountains in their Way to Chili; but now they either go by Sea, or by the Side of these Mountains, to avoid the Danger, so many having perished in going over them; and others, that have escaped with their Lives, have lost their Fingers and Toes, and have been lamed. The same Gentleman affects, that General Costilla marching over it with an Army, great Part of his Men fuddenly fell down dead, and their Bodies remained there without Stench or Corruption. And some English Seamen affure us, that they have seen such Numbers of Bodies of Men, Women, and Children, lying dead upon the Sands there, that a Man might have walked on them half a Mile: That the Bodies, to Appearance, seemed as if they had not been dead a Week; but when they were handled, they proved as dry and light as a Sponge, or a Piece of Cork. It is agreed on all Hands, that the Heat of the Sands, and the Driness of the Peruvian Air, preserved these Bodies from Putrefaction, whatever was the Cause of their Deaths. As to the Weather in Peru, it is various, according to the Situation of the Land: The Lanes, or fandy Plains by the Sea-side, never have a Drop of Rain upon them, but frequently thick Mists rise there. On the Sierras, or Hills beyond, the Rains fall when the Sun is in the Southern Signs, as they do in other Countries that lie between the Equator and Tropic of Gapricern. And on the Ander, the vaftly high Mountains that are fituated farthest from the Sea, it rains or snows two-thirds of the Year, and is excessive cold. It is very strange, that the Plains on the Sea-shore of Pera should have no Rains; because the Sea-coasts, in other Couneries, are usually more subject to Rain, and cloudy Weather, than either the Ocean at a great Distance from the Land, or the middle of any Continent. For Instance, the Low-Comtries, in Holland and Flanders, have more wet and cloudy Weather, than either the middle of Germany, or France; in

like manner, Seamen usually find serene and settled Weather four or five hundred Miles from Land, especially between the Tropics; and judge themselves near Land, when they see thick Clouds, which usually hang over it: They also observe, that Hurricanes are more frequent and violent near the Land, than they are an hundred Leagues out at Sea; though in that Part of the South-Sea, which bounds Peru on the Well, they know not what Storms or Hurricanes mean. The Earthquakes, to which Peru is subject, especially about the City of Lima, must necessarily cast a Damp on all the Enjoyments of the prodigiously-wealthy Merchants. Great Part of their Towns, Cities, and vast Mountains, have been thrown down by these terrible Events; and the Rivers have been turned out of their Courses. In the Year 1687 the Sea ebbed so far from the Shore, that there was no Water to be seen; and after the Sea had disappeared a considerable Time, it returned in rolling Mountains of Water, and drowned both Men and Cattle for 150 Miles along the Coasts. The Ships, 150 Leagues at Sea to the Westward of Lima, were sensible of this terrible Shock, the Seamen thinking they had ftruck upon a Rock; but, after their Consternation was a little over, they call the Lead, and founded, but could find no Ground; though the Sea, which usually looks green, was then of a whitish Colour, and the Water they took up, mixed with Sand; which made them conclude, that the Shock was occasioned by an Earthquake; and, a little after, they were informed there had been a violent Earthquake at

lima at the same time. The Face of Chili nearly resembles that of Peru; for all our Seamen agree, that the Coast of Chili is an high, bold Shore; and that faither within the Land there arise other Hills, which the Staniards call Sierras, and above them the Lindes, the highest Mountains in the known World. These Mountains are a Prodigy in Nature; the Ascent is so prodigious, that a Traveller is three or sour Days in arriving to the Top of them, and as many more in the Descent only of the Mountains; for otherwise it is affirmed, that a Traveller begins to mount, even from the Sea-side, because all the Way, which is about forty Leagues, is nothing but an exceeding shelving Coast; for which Reason their Rivers run with such Force, that their Streams are like Mill-streams, especially near their Sources.

When Travellers aftend the highest Part of these Mountains, they feel an Air so piercing and subtle, that 'tis with much Difficulty they breathe; which obliges them to setch their Breath

Breath quick and strong, and to open their Mouths wider than ordinary, applying to them likewise their Handkerchiefs to condense their Breath, and break the extreme Coldness of the Air. Writers observe, that those who pass the Andes in Peru, suffer great Reachings and Vomitings; but those who travel over the Mountains of Chili, never are affected with those Disorders, but only the Difficulty of Breathing: So that in that Part of the Andes in Peru, which they call Pariacaca, there may be a Concurrence of other Causes, and a particular Disposition of the Climate, to which the Cause of the above Effects may be attributed, and not to the Height of the Mountains; for these in Chili are highest without Comparison. Travellers pass over these Mountains, treading, as it were, upon Clouds; when they ascend the highest Parts, they can no longer fee the Earth for the Clouds below; but the Heavens are clear, and the Sun shines out in its full lustre. They observe the Rain-bow (which in the Valleys they see croffing the Heavens) extended under their Feet; nor is it less admirable, that, while they travel over these Hills, and see at a Diffance Tempests and Storms falling into the Valleys beneath, the Air is very serene over their Heads. There are in this Chain of Mountains sixteen Vulcanoes, which, at several Times, have broken out, and caused Effects very terrible and aftonishing to all the Country: Among these dismal Events. that which happened in the Year 1640 is very remarkable; for a Mountain burnt with fo much Force, that it was broken in two, and cast forth Pieces of Recks all on Fire, with so horrible a Noise, that it was heard many Leagues off, just like the going off of Cannons. The Andes are supposed to be very rich in Mines, but the Indians endeavour to conceal them from all other Nations: For it seems, if any one among them discovers any Thing of this Kind, his Death is infallible: Besides, the Reason for not seeking after these Mines is, the Natives have great Plenty of every Thing necessary for Life. The Difference which Travellers observe in passing the Andes, between each Side of the Mountain, the East and West Parts. is so great, that they seem two different Worlds: for, on the Top, the Traveller discovers both Horizons; and, when he looks to the East, all is covered with thick Vapours, which feem to hinder the Light, and shadow all the Country; but, on the West, he observes the Heavens so bright, that it causes Pleasure and Joy to look on them: The East-side is full of a cloudy, thick Air, which ingenders Storms and Hail, with horrible Thunder and Lightnings: On the West is not a Cloud

a Cloud to be seen, but all is clear and bright. In going down to the Eastward also, there are sewer Fountains and Rivers, those muddy, and the Face of the Land melancholy, without so much as one green Tree to recreate the Sight, nor any pleasant Verdure: But, on the West of the Mountains, it is quite otherwise; for as soon as the Traveller begins to descend, he meets with lovely Springs; the Trees are green, and Groves fragrant and pleafant; and the little Valleys are like so many Resting-places in that great Stair-case. From the very Foot of the Mountains one may feel the Mildness of the Sea-air, and a Traveller is charmed with the Harmony of the Birds, and other delightful Objects. The Valleys also are full of odoriferous, beautiful Flowers, produced by Nature without human Art or Industry; and there are amongst them extraordinary physical Plants. The little Hills afford good Pasture, and, in their Valleys, Olives, Almonds, and all Sort of Fruit-trees thrive extremely well; in the Plains also are Vinevards, of which are made excellent Wine. With the first Rains of the Winter, which are about the Middle of May, the Ander begin to be covered with Snow, and continue shut up, or impassable, five or fix Months. But, in speaking of the Scasons of Chili, it is necessary to have Regard to the Divisions of the Country, which are comprehended under that general Name: 1. Chili Proper, which lies between 25 and 45 Degrees of South Latitude, and between the Mountains of the Andes and the South-Sea. In this Division the Spring begins in the Middle of August, and lasts to the middle of November, when the Summer begins, and lasts till the middle of February; and then follows Autumn, which lasts till the middle of May, when they enter upon their Win-The Trees in the Winter are all bare of Leaves, and white Frosts cover the Ground in a Morning, which are usually diffolved, however, within two Hours after Sun-rising; and 'tis feldom that any Snow falls in the Valleys, or low Grounds. Neither the Heat or the Cold is fo great here, as in other Countries of the same Latitude; but that Part of the Country which lies vext the Sea, is warmer than that which is contiguous to the Mountains: Nor is there so much cloudy or rainy Weather here, as in Countries that lie in the fame Latitude either North or South. In Summer they have constant serene settled Weather without Rain; nor have they Occasion for any, the Country is so well watered by the Rivers of melted Snow, which, in the Beginning of Summer, descend from the Mountains of the Andes. 2. In the Province

ieye, which lies East of the Andes, extending from Paraor La Plata, to 45 Degrees, on the contrary, the iter is extreme cold; it freezes in the House; and their le die, if left abroad; and the Heats are equally in-able in the Summer: Thunder, Lightning, and Tem-, are frequent here also in Summer, and such Deluges of in the Spring, as overflow the Country. 3. I prehend the Country, called Magellanica, or Magellanica. gonia, under the general Name of Chili. is a cold, uncomfortable Country; and, according to Seamen, the Cold is more intense here, than in other ntries in the fame Latitude in our Northern Hemisphere. ain it is, that none of our European Adventurers have invited hither by the Air or Soil, to plant Colonies, er in the East or West Side of Patagonia, or zellanica. Terra del Fuego, like the Continent Terra del Fuego -against it, is mountainous and woody, the s of the Mountains always covered with Snow; but it has ral good Bays and Harbours on the Coast, to shelter ping from the Storms and Tempests that n in those Seas. Paragua, or La Plata, Paragua. ists of large Plains, extending two or three dred Leagues in Length, without any Trees, at least any ng that looks like Timber, and scarce a Hill, or Stone, to een in them; but in the Country to the Eastward of the t River Paragua, that borders on Brasil, there is a iety of Hills and Valleys, Woods and Champain. As to Seasons, the North Part of this Country has, in November December annually, when the Sun is vertical, very heavy as, Storms, and Tempests. But directly contrary, in that of the Country that lies to the Southward of the Tropic Capricorn, it is their Summer, (their fair Season when Sun is nearest them, viz.) in November, December, and uary; and those Rivers which rise within the Tropics, icularly La Plata, Paragua, and Parana, after the Rains fallen within the Tropics, swell and overflow their Banks, the flat Countries, as they pass through the South Part of this intry, rendering it as fruitful as the Nile does Egypt; and ed this is the Case in almost every Part of the World, re the Rivers rife within the Tropics. The intry of the Amazons enjoys a cooler Air, than ld be expected so near the Equator; which

reads from the heavy Rains, that occasion the numerous ers to overslow their Banks one half of the Year; from

the cloudy Weather; from the Shortness of the Days, which are never more than twelve Hours long; and from the brisk Eafterly Wind, that blows frequently from the Atlantic Ocean quite through the Country, fo strong that the Vessels are enabled thereby to fail against the Stream, and perform the Voyage almost as soon up the great River Amazon, as down it; which I perceive is a Voyage of eight or ten Months, where no ill Accidents interrupt the Passage. Travellers also observe, that they have most terrible Thunder and Lightning great Part of the Year; but this is no more than what is usual in other Countries, that lie under the Equinoctial: And it may properly be faid, they have two Winters and two Summers every Year; that is, fair Weather when the Sun is at its greatest Distance from them in either Tropic; and foul Weather when it is vertical, as it is at the Vernal and Autumnal Equinox. In Cula there is Cita. a Ridge of Mountains, which runs almost through the Island from East to West, well replenished with Timber; but the Land near the Shore is generally a plain Champain Country. They have no Winters here, but great Rains and Tempests usually when the Sun is vertical in July and August; which cools the Air, however, and renders the Climate tolerable. The fairest Scason is, when the Sun is farthest from them; and then the Morning is much the hottest Part of the Day; for, towards Noon, the Sca-breeze begins to blow pretty brifkly, and continues to do so till the Evening. From October to April they have brisk North or North-west Winds in these Seas at the Full and Change of the Moon; and, in December and January, they frequently increase in Storm, though this be their fair Scason. The Trade-wind, in these Seas, blows from the North-east. As to Hispariela. the Face of the Country in Hiffanisla, there are Mountains in the middle of it well planted with Forest-trees: and other Mountains more barren, in which formerly were Gold Mines, that feem to be entirely exhausted at this Day. On the North and South Sides of the Island are fine fruitful Plains well watered with Abundance of pleafant Rivers, which fall from the Mountains. The Air and Seafons are much the same in this as in the Island of Cula. Perto Rico. The Island of Porto Rico is pleasantly diversified with Woods, Hills, and Valleys; but there are few large Plains. As to the Gold Mines that Travellets relate there are in this Island, there are none wrought at this Day; nor were there ever any that were confiderable. The Soil is very rich, producing Variety of Fruits, and all things necessary

for Life. As to the Air, &c. of Spanish Florida, storida, see Carolina. I have omitted the particular Produce of the Spanish Empire in America, in order to treat of them more fully under the Head of Trade in this Chapter.

The Value of the Merchandize in the City TRADE. of Mexico is not to be computed 3. this City being the Mart for all Goods brought from the East-Indies, of Barepe: Those of the East-Indies they receive from Act-Acres Sea-port in Mexico, on the South-Sea; and those of Europe Henry La Vera-Cruz, situated in the Bay of Mexico, on the Worth-Sea: And their own native Treasures, Gold, Silver, precious Stones, &c. added to the former, make the Shops and Markets of Mexico the richest that are to be found in any Town upon the Face of the Earth. It feems, the Spaniards employ but two Ships annually in the rich Trade between Acapulco and the Philippine Islands near the Coast of China; they do not go together in Company, but make the Voyage alternately: One of them fets out from Acapulce the latter end of March, or the Beginning of April, and arrives at Manila, in the Philippine Islands, some time in June, when the other is ready to fail from Manile to Acapulco. It is reckoned about 8000 Miles from Acapulco to Manila; and these the Spaniards sail in ten Weeks, or three Months, in going from Mexico to Manila, having a constant Trade-wind from the North-east, and serene Weather in 10 or 12 Degrees of North Latitude, which they get into as foon as they can, and have scarce any Occasion to alter their Sails till they arrive at the Ladrone Islands, about 400 Leagues short of the Philippines, where they touch, and take in fresh Provisions and Water. And, in this Latitude, the South-See may well be stiled Pacific; for they scarce ever meet with Storms, or bad Weather, all the Way. The Cargo of this Ship consists chiefly of Silver. The Voyage from Manila to Acapulco is performed with incredible Hazards and Hardthips, which no Gain would induce a wife Man to undertake twice; for, when they leave Manila, they are forced to abandon the Pacific Part of the Ocean, and stand away to the North, till they come in about 353 or perhaps 40 Degrees, before they can meet with Westerly, or even variable Winds: And here they are toffed by the mountainous Waves, and their Patience tried by unconstant Weather. This Voyage may be looked upon as the longest and most dreadful of any in the World; as well because of the vast Ocean to be crossed, the Wind always a-head, as for the terrible Tempelli, which happen one upon the back of another, in the Course they

are obliged to take, and for the desperate Diseases that seize

People, and many other shocking Calamities. The Spaniards, in failing from the Philippine Islands to America, always take Advantage of the Southerly Monfoon, which fets-in about May or June, on the Coast of China, and blows till Septemher or October; this carrying them as high as Latitude 30 Deg. North, where they begin to meet with variable Winds, it being very difficult for them to fail East: And, it feems, they usually arrive at the defired Port of Acaptales about Christmas. The Merchants, 'tis faid, usually get 150, or 200 per Cent. by this Voyage; the Pilot may make about 20,000 Pieces of Eight (4s. 6d. each); his Mates 9000 each; the Captain of the Galleon 40,000; the Boatswain, who has the Privilege of taking several Bales of Goods on board, gets an Estate in one Voyage; and the Wages of every Sailor is about 370 Pieces of Eight, amounting to about 84 l. Sterling. The Cargo of this Ship from Manile confifts of Diamonds, Rubies, Sapphires, and other precious Stones, found in the East-Indies; Cinnamon, Cloves, Mace, Nutmegs, and Pepper; rich Carpets of Persia, the Camphire of Bornes, the Benjamin and Ivory of Pegu and Cambadia; Silks, Muslins, and Calicoes of the East-Indies; the Gold-dust, Tea, China-ware, Silk, Cabinets, &c. of China and Japan: All which amount to a prodigious Sum; this one Ship having more Riches in it than some whole Fleets. These Ships, employed to carry on this rich Trade, are usually Ships of good Force, and commonly 800, or 1000 Tons Burden. At the time this Ship arrives at Acapulce from Manila, there come in two or three Ships from Line in Peru, very little inferior to the former in Value, being laden with Silver, Quickfilver, Cocoa-nuts, and other rich Merchandize of South America, with which they purchase the Merchandize of Europe, and the East-Indies: For, in the Months of January and February, a great Fair is held at Acapulco; and a vast Concourse of Merchants come from Mexico to vend the Goods of Europe, and buy those of China, the East-Indies, and Peru. There is very little Trade carried on by the Coast of Mexico; all Goods are carried from Acapulco to the City of Mexico, by Mules and Pack-horses; and from thence to Vera-Cruz in like manner, in order to be shipp'd for Europe. This last Town is of great Importance, on account of the Flotilla reforting thither, to receive the Gold and Silver found in the Mines of Mexico; and its being a Mart of all manner of rich Merchandise, that are brought hither from China, the East-Indies, Peru, and Europe; which

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which brings me to speak of the Trade between Mexico and Old-Spain. Thirty or forty large Ships carry on the Trade between Spain and their Dominions in America; and these are almost all of them their own Vessels, no Trade being suffered to be carried on in foreign Bottoms, or any Foreigner to visit their Coasts, unless the South-Sea Company in England, who furnish them with Slaves, and that under several Re-Arictions: and his Catholick Majesty, on condition that the Company shall not carry on any clandestine Trade, grants them the Privilege of sending out a Ship annually to trade to the Indies. The Vessels used by the Spaniards in transporting Merchandize from Spain to America, are generally large, and of good Force, and called Galleons: They fail in Fleets annually from Cadiz, laden with Goods of many different Nations; but the English, French, Dutch, and Italians, are Proprietors of the greatest Part of their Cargoes, and the Spaniards are, in a great measure, their Factors; for, when the Galleons return from America, with the Treasure for which the Goods have been fold, it is, most of it, distributed amongst the Merchants and Factors belonging to those four Nations. The Spaniards, employed in this Affair, are Men of such strict Honour, that those, in whose Names these Effects are sent over, and the Returns made, scarce ever abuse the Confidence that is placed in them, or betray their Principals; for, by the Laws of Spain, no Stranger can, directly or indirectly, trade to the Spanish West-Indies, but he forfeits his Goods. However, it cannot be supposed but the Government of Spain is very well apprised, that this Trade is, in a manner, carried on by Foreigners, and, for very good Reasons, connive at it: They know their own People are not able to freight these Fleets; and, if they were not enabled to do it by Foreigners, their American Dominions must want all manner of Necessaries almost for Cloathing and Furniture. It must be confessed, that it would be much more for the Advantage of the Kingdom of Spain, to encourage Manufactures at Home, and trade more with the Product of their own Country: but, fince they are not to be brought to this, the next best thing they can do is, to turn Factors and Carriers for their Neighbours; for, besides the Advantages of these Effects passing through their Hands, the Revenues of the Spanish Crown must be vastly increased, by The greatest the Importation and Exportation of them. Part of the Galleons fail to Porto-Bello, and are called the Flota; the other Part, called the Flotilla, or little Fleet, Gil

fail to Vera-Cruz in Mexico. The Flota sell their Mercl dize chiefly at the Fair of Porto-Bello, where they take board Gold, and Silver, and other rich Treasures of 1 and Chili, in Return for their Effects. The Flotilla sell t Cargoes at the Fair of Vera-Cruz; to which place is brou the Gold and Silver of Mexico, with the Gold-dust, Preci Stones, and other Treasures of China, and the East-Indi and with these the Flotilla is freighted on its Return to Eur The Galleons, when they go from Spain, sail to the Sou west, and get into the Way of the Trade-wind as soon they can, which carries them into 11 or 12 Degrees North Latitude; then, bending their Course directly We the leave the Caribbee Islands on the Right, or Star-bo quarter, and continue their Course to the Westward, they arrive at Rio de la Hacha, where they come to Anchor, and Expresses are immediately sent to Carthage Panama, Porto-Bello, Vera-Cruz, &c. to prepare the Kil Treasure for the Galleons, to take on board at their Retu At which the greatest Part of the Fleet sails to Carthago and Porto-Bello, and the rest to Vera-Cruz. All the Gall usually join together, on their Return, at the Havanna, the Island of Cuba; and failing from thence to Spain in Co pany, take a very different Course from that by which the came from Europe; for, in their Return, they fail No through the Gulph of Florida; and, continuing their Con to the North-east, till they come into the Latitude 36 or where they meet with variable Winds, they then shape it near to the East as the Winds will permit them, till t come upon the Coast of Spain; and are usually six or e Weeks in their Passage. These Fleets have sometimes, faid, brought Home near the Value of 15,000,000l. Sterl. Gold and Silver only; of which the King has a Fi There is also a Trade carried on between Mexico and Ca Hispaniola and Porto-Rico, as likewise between Mexico : Terra-Firma, by the Barlavento Fleet, or Guarda Col. confifting of fix or feven Sail of Ships, of good Burdens: Force, that serve both as Men of War, and Merchant-mi for they are ordered to visit all the Spanish Sea-ports in North-Sca every Year, as well to supply one Place with w another produces, or can furnish, as to prevent Foreign trading in their Ports, and to clear the Seas of Pirates. Fleet goes to Vera-tiruz in October, or November, and mains there till March; from thence they sail to the Hawan where they dispose of the Merchandize they bring from Mexi



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ter which they stand to the Northward, through the Gulph Florida, till they come into the Latitude of 30 or 40; hen they stretch away to the South-east, till they make the land of Porto-Rico; and, having dispatched their Business ere, they continue their Course to the Southward, till they rive at Trinity Island, near the Mouth of the River Oronoko: rom thence the Guarda Costas fail to Margarita, another infiderable Island near the Main, coasting along to Comana, nd so to Caracos; then they double Cape La Vela, and coast ong by Rio de la Hecha, St. Martha, and Carthagena; on hich Coast they frequently meet with English, French, and Dutch Trading Sloops, and make Prizes of them: nd, having staid some Time at Carthagena, they proeed to Porto - Bello; whence, having visited the Bay of 'ampeachy, they return at length to Vera-Cruz again. he Smuggling, or Clandestine Trade, carried on by the En lift, French, and Dutch, is very beneficial to those Nations; or the Goods carried over in the Galleons, are bought up at xtravagant Rates at the Fair of Porto-Bello, to be transported gain by the South-Sea to Peru; which extravagant Prices for lothing, and Furniture, tempt the English, &c. to fit out loops with what Necessaries are wanting on the Coast of Mexico, &c. in order to trade with the Spaniards on those loasts, who are no less ready to receive the Goods of these oreigners, than they are to fell them, giving Pieces of Eight or what they buy. But, as was observed before, the Barrvento Fleet, or Guarda Costas, meet with such Trading reffels; they never fail to make them all Prize; and even ometimes seize on Ships that have never been concerned in his clandestine Trade, on Suspicion; and, finding Pieces of light on board, have frequently procured them to be conlemned; which has been the Cause of the many Complaints our Merchants have made, and the Ground of the late War with the Crown of Spain. For it is highly necessary, that our Trade and Navigation, in the West-Indies be carried on vithout Interruption; and the fair Trader be brought under 10 fuch Hardships, as may discourage him from carrying on Trade to our Plantations; which is so advantageous to the Crown of Great Britain, and its Subjects, as was observed n treating of the Trade of the British Dominions in America. The Logwood Trade, carried on by the English, has occasioned many Disputes between Britain and Spain; this Business of cutting Logwood in the Bay of Campeachy, the English have followed for a great many Years, in a Part of he Country destitute of Spanish or Indian Inhabitants; and Vol. I. looked

looked upon it, that this long Possession had given them at least as good a Right to that Part of the Country, as the Spaniards seem to have to any of the rest: And, in some Traties, we are told, the Spaniards seem to have yielded this Trade to the English. However, they have thought fit, of late Years, to fall upon our Logwood-cutters, killed many of them, and carried the rest into perpetual Imprisonment, not suffering them to be exchanged or ransomed. As to the Trade of Paraguay, the City of Buenos Ayres is a great Mart; for hither European Merchandize is brought, and sent from hence to Peru and Chili; and hither great Numbers of Negroes are brought by the English, by virtue of the Assents Contract. From Buenos Ayres are exported to Europe Part of the Gold and Silver of Peru, with vast Quantities of Hides,

and Tallow, and other Merchandize.

RELIGION.] The Mexicans, before the Spaniards arrived among them, acknowledged, that the World was governed by feveral Gods; and therefore built Temples, and paid their Devotions, to them. But they had the greatest Veneration for the Sun; as is evident from their afcribing whatever was great and wonderful, to the Direction and Influence of that glorious Planet. They had, however, no Image of that hervenly Body in the Temple of Mexico; for they imagined it unnecessary to make any Resemblance of that Luminary, which appeared to them every Day; or rather they supposed he governed the World by the Mediation of inferior Deities, to whom they built Temples, and paid their Devotion, as Mediators for them to that mighty Being they did not think themselves worthy to approach directly. As to the human Sacrifices, with which the Spaniards charge the Mexicans, making these a Colour for all the Outrages they committed in And ica; for aught I can learn, they neither facrificed Beafts, or Men, constantly, but only in the Time of great Calamity; fuch as Famine, or ill Success in War, to appeale their angiv Gods, as the Phanicians and Carthaginians did. As to the Christian Religion, which the Spaniards have introduced into this New World, it appears, that many Thousands of the Indians have been baptized by the Popish Missionaries, and have embraced the Gospel. The Peruvians, when the Spaniarit arrived amongst them, acknowledged one God, the Maker of all Things, who futtained the Universe; that he was invifible, but offered him no Sacrifice: However, they shewed the profound Reverence they had for him in their Heart, by bowing their Heads, lifting up their Eyes, and by other outward Gestures, whenever his facred Name was mentioned.

Of the Portuguese Empire in America.

BOUNDARIES.] RASIL is bounded on the East, North, and South, by the Atlantic Ocean; on the West, by the Land of the Amazons, and Paraguay.

SITUATION.] Brasil is situated between the Equator and 45 Degrees South Latitude; and between 35 and 58 Degrees West Longitude. The Length whereof is 2220; and the

Breadth 900 Miles: The Square Miles are 940,000.

CLIMATE.] As to the Face of the Country, the Land is rather low than high near the Coast, but exceeding pleasant, diversified with Woods, and Meadow-grounds, and Trees, for the most part, Ever-greens: But on the West Side of it, far within Land, are high Mountains, which separate it from Paraguay; and, in these, are innumerable Springs and Lakes, from vece iffue Abundance of Rivers, that flow into the greater ones of Amazon and La Plata, or run West to East, and fall into the Atlantic Ocean. That Part of Brafil, which lies near the Equator, like other Countries in the same Situaion, is subject to great Rains, and variable Winds, particularly in the Months of March and September, when they have Deluges of Rain, with Storms and Tornadoes, the Country overflowed, and the Air unhealthful. The Winds and Scasons, from five Degrees to about 23 and an half South, are the very Reverse to what they are in other Parts of the World in the same Latitudes; for, whereas, the dry Season comes on in other Places South of the Equinoctial, when the Sun goes to the Northward of the Equator, and the wet Season begins when the Sun returns to the Southward, here the wet Season begins in April, when the South-east Winds set in with violent Tornadoes, Thunder and Lightning: And in September, when the Wind shifts to East-north-east, it brings with it a clear Sky, and fair Weather. There are but two Winds that blow upon this Coast, viz. the South-east, from April to September, and the North-east from September to April again: But 30 or 40 Leagues out at Sea, they meet with the conflant Trade-wind, which blows in the Atlantic Ocean all the Year round from the Eastward, with very little Variation.

GOVERNMENT.] The Coast of Brafil was first discovered by Americus Vesputius, an Italian. Several private Partuguese Adventurers, soon after, went over to Brafil with their Families; but were, most of them, destroyed by the Natives;

and no Settlements were made, to any Purpole, till the 1549, when John King of Portugal fent a great Fleet

ther, with 1000 Soldiers on Board.

TRADE.] The European Ships commonly arrive in I in February or March, and they have generally quick Paffi finding, at that Time of the Year, brifk Gales to bring to the Line, little Trouble then in croffing it, and East-north-east Winds to carry them thither. The Commodities these Ships transport from Europe, are Licloths, both coarse and fine; Woollens, as Bays, Serges, petuanas, &c. Hats, Stockings, both of Silk and Thre Biscuit-bread, Wheat-flour, Wine, Oil-olive, Butter, Ch. &c. Iron, and all Sorts of Iron-Tools, Pewter Vessels of Sorts, as Dishes, Plates, Spoons, &c. Looking-glasses, Be and other Toys. The Ships commonly return from B the latter End of May, or in June. They bring to Easugar, Tobacco, either in Roll or Snuff, never in Leas.

Of the French Empire in America.

CLIMATE,
GOVERNMENT,
TRADE,
RELIGION,
CUSTOMS.

Tive Countries. As to the Trade of the French Island
America, they export prodigious Quantities of Sugar; we
Commodity the French have cultivated with great Applica
of late Years; and all Europe.

Of the Dutch Dominions in America.

The chief of the Dutch Settlements is Surinam, on Coast of Guiara, in Terra-Firma. They have gethe Name of Surinam to all the Country about this Forfor several hundred Miles; and look upon themselve Sovereigns of it. To the Northward of Terra-Firma, and the Caribles Islands, lie the Dutch Islas Curossow and Ba. The Island of Curassow, containing about 342 square M is not so much esteemed for its Produce, as its Situation Trade with the Spanish West-Indies. Force by the Hari

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of Curaffow was never without Ships from Carthagena and Porto-Bello; however, the Dutch have still a very extensive Trade in this Place, sending Ships of good Force from Holland, freighted with European Goods, to this Coast, from whence they make very profitable Returns. The Island of Bonair contains about 168 square Miles; the Dutch have seven or eight Soilders here, and five or six Families of Indians, whose chief Employment is the looking after their Goats for their Masters, of which the Dutch salt up great Numbers every Year. Add to these the Island of Oraba, seven or eight Leagues to the Westward of Curassow; which are all the Acquisitions of the Dutch in America.



ASTRONOMY

Of the SOLAR SYSTEM according to COPERNIC

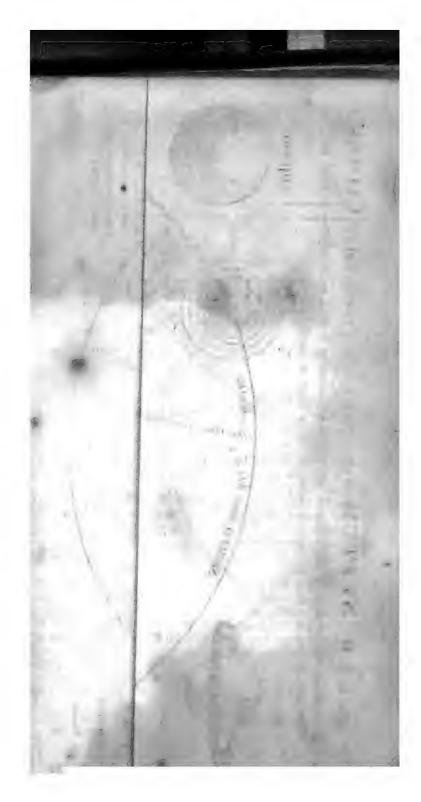
S. A T the Beginning of this Discourse you promised give me some Idea of Astronomy, which I should r

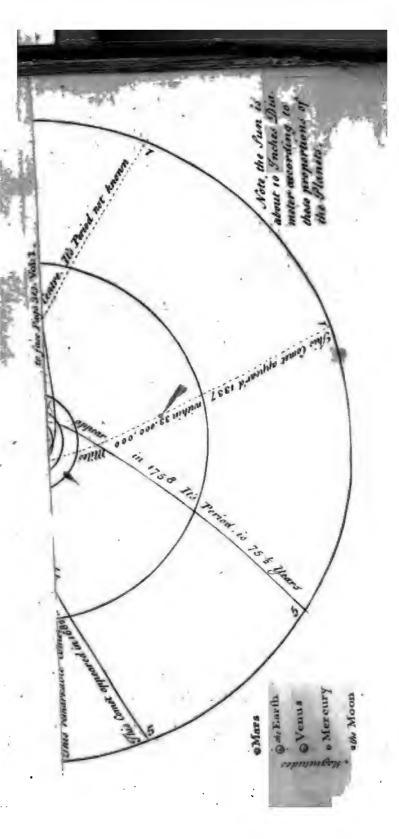
attend to with great Pleasure.

M. As to the Science of Aftronomy in all its Parts, the is both pleasant and useful, it may perhaps be too intri and laborious for you to enter upon at present. I will the fore content myself with endeavouring to give you a gen Notion of the Copernican System, without entering at all to the abstract Parts of the Science.

The Earth we live on, has been generally thought to the Center of the Universe, and to be fixt and immove a Pythagoras indeed among the Ancients, taught the contribut his Opinion, for want of being thoroughly canvassed learned and ingenious Men, grew into Disrepute, and was many Centuries totally neglected. About 250 Years ag was again revived by Copernicus, a Native of Thorn in Pisia; and is of late, by our great Newton, established such clear and solid Principles, that it is now universectived.

This System is disposed in the following Manner. Sun is placed in the Center, from whence it never mo But from some Observations made on its Spots, it is for





to turn round on its own Axis, from West to East, in about 25 Days. Round about him at unequal Distances six opaque spherical Bodies continually revolve: These are called the primary Planets. That which is nearest to the Sun is called Mercury; the next Venus; then our Earth; the next beyond is Mars; after him Jupiter; and the most distant of all is Saturn. Saturn, Jupiter, and Mars, are called superior Planets, because their Circuits are beyond the Earth's Orbit; Mercury and Venus are called inferior Planets, because their Circuits are within that Orbit.

Besides these, there are discover'd in this System ten other Bodies, which move about some of these primary Planets in the same manner, as they move round the Sun. These are called secondary Planets. The most conspicuous of them is the Moon, which moves round our Earth; sour move in like

manner round Jupiter, and five round Saturn.

The same Planet is not always equally distant from the Sun; but if the Distance of the Earth from the Sun be divided into ten equal Parts, the mean Distance of Saturn from the Sun will be 95 such Parts, of Jupiter 52, of Mars 15, of Venus 7, and of Mercury 4. Now the Distance of the Earth from the Sun is found to be about 76 Millions of English Miles. If therefore you multiply one tenth Part of this Distance, which is about 7600000 Miles, by 95, it will give you the Distance of Saturn from the Sun, in English Miles; if by 52, it will give you the Distance of Jupiter; if by 15, of Wars; if by 7, of Venus; and if by 4, of Mercury.

But from a round Calculation, the Distance of each Planet

from the Sun in English Miles is about

Mercury	32 7	
Venus ————————————————————————————————————	59	Millions
	70	of Miles.
Japiter ————	424	
Satura	777 2	

The Distance of the Moon from the Earth is about 30 of the Earth's Diameters, or 240 Thousand Miles. Its Proportion to the Earth in Magnitude is as 5 to 258; that is, it is more than 50 times less than the Earth. The Sun is about a Militan of times bigger than the Earth.

X 4

ASTRONOMY.

The Diameters of the Sun, the Earth, and each of the Planets, in English Miles, are nearly as follows:

Saturn — — — Jupiter — — — Mars	67,900
Barth ————————————————————————————————————	7,900 Miles,
Venus — — — — — Mercury — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —	

All these Planets, both primary and secondary, being opaque Bodies, and receiving all their Light from the Sun, as well as making their great Revolutions round him, are for these Reasons look'd upon as Dependents on him, and make up alto-

gether what is called the Solar System.

All these Planets move one Way, from West to East; and of the primary Planets, the most remote is longest in finishing its Course round the Sun. The Period of Saturn salls short only 16 Days of 29 Years and a half. The Period of Jupiter is 12 Years wanting about 50 Days. The Period of Mars is within 43 Days of 2 Years. The Revolution of the Earth is one Year. The Period of Venus is perform'd in about 224 Days and an half, and of Mercury in about 88 Days.

Such of these Bodies as revolve round their own Axis, perform that Revolution in the following times. The Sun in something more than 25 Days. Mars in one Day and 40 Minutes. The Earth in 23 Hours 56 Minutes. And Jupi-

ter in 10 Hours.

The Moon revolves about her Axis in the same time that she makes her Course round the Earth, which is a Month; so that her Inhabitants have but one Day throughout the Year. It is very probable, that Mercury and Saturn also revolve round their own Axes, as all Parts of their Surfaces cannot otherwise receive the Light and Heat of the Sun, which in all Probability are as necessary and convenient to them, as we find them to be to the Earth. The Certainty of this Revolution in the other Planets is proved by the Appearance and Disappearance of certain Spots on their Surfaces, which rising first on one Side or Edge of the Planet's Disk, move by Degrees to the Middle, and so on till they reach the opposite Edge, where they set and disappear: And after they have been hid for about the same Space of Time that they were visible.

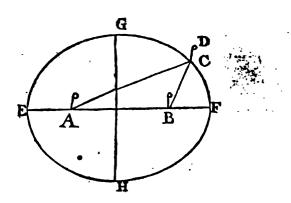
wifible, they again appear to rife in or near the same Place as they did at first. Now by reason of Mercury's Nearness to the Sun, and of Saturn's great Distance from him, no Observations of this kind have hitherto been made on them, and therefore their diurnal Motion, or Revolution round their own

Axes, tho' probable, is not yet absolutely determined.

As the Ecliptic Line is the Orbit or annual Path of the Earth, so each Planet has its proper Orbit, whose Plane disters some sew Degrees from the Plane of the Orbit of the Earth; and to a Spectator's Eye placed in the Center, would intersect or cut the Earth's Orbit at two opposite Points or Nodes. To represent this more plainly to your Imagination, suppose, says Mr. Watts, as thany Hoops as there are Planets, thrust through with several strait Wires, and thereby join'd in different Places to the Hoop that represents the Plane of the Ecliptic, i. e. the Earth's Orbit; and then let those Hoops be turn'd more or less obliquely from the Plane of the Ecliptic: For all the several Orbits or Paths of the Planets do not cross or intersect the Ecliptic in the same Point, nor at the same Angles; but their Nodes or Intersections of the Ecliptic are in different Parts of the Ecliptic, and also make different Angles with it.

Each of the primary Planets moves round the Sun in a Line which forms an Ellipsis, which I will here show you how to

describe.



Fix upon any Plane two Pins, as at A and B. To these tie a String ACB somewhat longer than their Distance from

from one another. Then apply a third Pin D in the Double of the Thread, so as to hold it strain'd, and in that manner carrying this Pin about, the Points of it will describe an Ellipsis. If through the Points AB the strait Line EABF be drawn, and terminated at the Points E and F, this is the longest Line that can be drawn within the Figure, and is called the greater Axis of the Ellipsis. The Line GH, drawn perpendicular to this Axis EF, so as to pass thro' the middle of it, is called the lesser Axis. The two Points A and B are called Focus's. Now each primary Planet moves round the Sun in a Line of this kind, the Place of the Sun being in one of the Focus's. Suppose A to be the Place of the Sun,

then E is the Point wherein the Planet will be nearest to the Sun, and at F it will be the most remote. The Point E is call'd the Perihelion of the Planet, and F the Aphelion. In G and H the Planet is said to be in its middle or mean Distance, because the Distance AG or AH is truly the middle between AE the least, and AF the greatest Distance.

Of the fix primary Planets, it hath not been observed that more than three are attended with Secondaries, Moons, or

Satellites, viz. the Earth, Jupiter, and Saturn.

The Moon is a secondary Planet to the Earth, and performs her Revolution round it, in somewhat less than 28 Days, at about thirty Diameters of the Earth's Distance from it; and in the Space of a Year is carry'd along with the Earth round the Sun.

* Jupiter has four Satellites attending him. The first or innermost of which performs its Revolution in about 1 Day 18½ Hours, at a Distance from the Center of that Planet equal to about 5½ Semi-diameters of Jupiter's Body. The next Satellite revolves round Jupiter in about 13 Days 13½ Hours, at the Distance from Jupiter of about 9 of that Planet's Semi-diameters. The third performs its Period nearly in 7 Days 3½ Hours, at the Distance of about 14½ Semi-diameters. The fourth, which is the outermost, makes its Period in about 16 Days 16½ Hours, at a Distance of about 25½ Semi-diameters.

Saturn has five Satellites attending him, which perform their Periods round him as follows. The innermost is distant about $4\frac{1}{2}$ of Saturn's Semi-diameters, and revolves round him in about 1 Day 21 $\frac{2}{3}$ Hours. The next is distant about $5\frac{1}{4}$ Semi-diameters, and makes its Period in 2 Days 17 $\frac{5}{4}$ Hours. The third is about 8 Semi-diameters distant, and performs its Revolution in near 4 Days 11 $\frac{1}{4}$ Hours. The fourth is near 18 $\frac{2}{3}$ Semi-diameters distant, and moves spund Saturn in about

to Days 22. Hours. The outermost is removed to the Diflance of 56 Semi-diameters, and makes its Revolution in about 79 Days 7. Hours. Besides these Satellites, there belongs to Saturn another Body of a very singular Kind. This is a shining, broad and slat Ring, which encompasses the Planet round about, without adhering in any Place to its Body. But what Laws this Ring is subject to, or what Uses it may serve,

pre yet unknown.

The Reason for taking such particular Notice of the Dichance of the primary Planets from the Sun, and of the semendary Planets from their respective Primaries, is this; these several Distances are requisite to be known, in order to apprehend more clearly the Excellency of the Copernican System; according to which the Motions of all the Planets, both Primary and Secondary, are regulated by one general Law, viz.

The Squares of the periodical Times of

the { Primary Secondary } Planets are one to another, as the Cubes

of their Distances from the Sun, Center of their Primary.

. Far beyond this Solar System are placed the fixed Stars, at fach an immense Distance, that the best Telescopes represent them but as Points: They are called fixed Stars, because from all Ages they have not been observed to change their Situation. Hence, fays Mr. Wells, it is usual to denote the Place of any of the intermediate Celestial Bodies, by affigning what Part of the Sphere of the fixed Stars they appear to us to be in. or more properly under. And accordingly it is usual to di-Afinguish that Tract of the Sphere of the fixed Stars, underwhich all the Planets move, by the Afterisms or Constellatione that lie in that Tract; which being fancy'd to represent several Things, are therefore called Signs; and because the Things represented by them are most of them + Zedie, er Animals, hence all this Tract is stil'd the Zodiac. Now the Orbit, wherein the Earth performs its annual Period (and which the Sun feems to move round every Year) runs under the very middle of the Zodiac; whence this middle Part of the Zodiac is of special Note in Astronomy, and is therefore distinguished by a peculiar Name, being called the Ecliptic. This, as well as the whole Zodiac, is divided into twelve Parts, distinguish'd by the Constellation or Sign, to which each Part was formerly affigned. The Names and Characters of the faid Signs are as follows.

Aries, Taurus, Gemini. Cancer. Leo, Virgo. Libra.

Y & II & Q
Scorpio. Sagittarius, Capricornus, Aquarius. Pifes.

W & **

From the Observations of those who have endeavoured to find the Parallax of the Earth's Orbit, it may be demonstrated, that the nearest of the fixed Stars are at least 100,000 Times farther from us, than we are from the Sun. Nay so inconceivable is the Space betwixt us and them, that Astronomers have computed the Distance of Sirius, or the Dog-Star, which is thought the nearest, to be no less than 2,200000,000000 Miles, i.e. two Billions and two hundred thousand Millions of Miles. So that a Cannon-Ball in its swiftest Motion, would be above six hundred thousand Years in travelling to it.

If a Spectator was placed as near to any fixed Star as we are to the Sun, that Star would in all Probability appear to him as big as the Sun appears to us; and our Sun would feem no bigger than a fixed Star. Since the Sun therefore differeth nothing from a fixed Star, why may not the fixed Stars be reckoned as fo many Suns, and every Star be supposed the Center to a System of inhabited Planets and Worlds like ours? For who can conceive that all those noble and majestic Globes were only intended as Lights or Ornaments

to this diminutive Ball which we inhabit?

But these grand Objects! these amazing Systems! their Numbers, Motions, Magnitudes! are much too vast and too sublime for the Capacity of the human Mind to form an adequate Conception of them. Yet let me hope that you will so contemplate them, as to raise and kindle in your Heart, Love, Praise, and Adoration to the supreme Creator.

PART IV. CHRONOLOGY AND HISTORY.

Governor. Pupil.

Myself to such Instructions as may be stiled Preliminary, and were intended to prepare you for Studies of a higher Nature. It now remains that I enter upon the more important Part of my Task; to principle your Mind with found Knowledge, to form you to Wisdom and Virtue, and guide you thro' the Paths of Learning and the Sciences. May I flatter myself with the same ready Attention here, the same Desire to learn and improve, as I have all along experienced in the Course of the Lessons already given you?

P. Doubtless you may; for in our several Conversations together, you have frequently intimated, that the Subjects then handled, tho' useful in themselves, yet chiefly merited Attention, as preparatory to other Things of greater Moment and Consequence. This Consideration made me listen to you with Pleasure, and I have waited impatiently for the

Time when I was to enter upon more scrious Studies.

G. I am pleased to find you so well disposed. You discover a Judgment and Understanding much above your Years; and as I plainly see that my past Instructions have not been wholly unprofitable, I proceed with the greater Chearfulness. And now that I am to lead you regularly thro' the most important Branches of human Learning, I shall begin with giving you Directions for that Study, which above all others conduces to make a Man knowing, prudent and virtuous. For this is the capital Point in Education, and what ought to be established as the Ground-work of all our other Improvements, if we mean that they shall be either profitable to ourselves,

or those with whom we converse. And indeed when the Principles of Virtue and Prudence are once thoroughly settled in the Mind, there will be little Difficulty in furnishing it with other useful Parts of Knowledge. For the Obstructions commonly met with in conducting Youth through the Sciences, are owing for the most part to a Disgust, or want of Relish and Inclination. But a Mind that is well seasoned with worthy and commendable Sentiments, will hardly give

way to Impressions to hurtful and injurious to itself.

P. I am perfectly fatisfied of the Truth of what you fay; nay, and have often reflected within myfelf, that the Anxiety my Parents discovered about my Progress in Study, must proceed from their knowing it to be for my Good. I had observed them tender and careful of me in every thing, afflicted when I was sick or in Pain, and pleased when I behaved well, so as to deserve Commendation from others. All this led me to conclude, that my Profit was their chief Aim in every thing they did relating to me. I am therefore delighted to hear you now mention a Study, that will serve to make me more knowing and prudent, and by convincing me that it is for my own Advantage to pursue Learning and Instruction, conquer any Reluctance that may still hang about me, and add Spurs to my Industry. But what Study do you mean?

G. I mean the Study of History.

P. Of Hiflory! How does that tend to make one knowing and virtuous?

G. Have Patience: these things must be unfolded by Degrees, that you may see Step by Step the Advantages to be derived from this Branch of Learning, and comprehend thoroughly the many valuable Purposes to which it serves.

P. Lam not whelly a Stranger to History; for I often take Pleature in reading by myfelf what is related of the ancient Empires, especially of the Greeks and Romans, and am tele-

rably weil acquainted with most of their great Men.

G. So much the better: you will relift the more the Leifons I am to give you upon this Subject. For as I shall only remind you of Facts yea know already, and accompany them with Resections which probably did not occur to you is reading; you will no doubt be pleased to view them again in new Lights, and furreunded with quite new Circumstances. It will be no Resection upon your Judgment, if I suppose that Wars, Battles, and the shining Exploits of the Heroes of Antiquity, have hitherto seemed most worthy of your Attention. It is natural for these Things to leave a strong

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Impression upon young Minds; nor ought we to wonder at it, fince even Men of riper Years are very apt to be misled by them. How many admire the Characters of Alexander and Julius Casar, as the most illustrious in ancient Story, purely on Account of the many Victories they gained, and the great military Renown they left behind them! They never confider them as the Authors of Misery to Thousands, as laving waste Countries out of Wantonness and Ambition, spreading Desolation where-ever they came, and depriving Multitudes of what they held most dear and valuable. These, I say, are Reflections, that often escape the more wise and knowing; much less are they to be expected from young Minds, dazzled with the Lustre of their great Actions. I therefore readily excuse you, if in reading the Lives of these renowned Commanders, and others mentioned in History, you have passed fuch a Judgment upon Men and Things, as was natural to your Age, and the yet imperfect State of your Understanding. But it is now Time to remove these Prejudices, and teach you to diffinguish between what is really valuable in a Character, and what deserving of Censure; that while you do Justice to Abilities, Valour, and Prudence, as Talents in themselves worthy of Esteem, you may not fail to condemn the Misapplication of them. For how different is the Manwho employs great Qualifications in advancing the Cause of Virtue, and promoting the Happiness of Mankind, from him who makes them subservient to the Gratification of his own Vices and Paffions, and by his fuperior Abilities, is only led to do the greater Mischief? But besides correcting the wrong Notions you may have formed by an over-hafty Decision, and conducting your Judgment aright with regard to past Transactions; it is also my Buliness to instruct you, how you are to manage the Study of History, that it may furnish you with Maxims of Prudence and Wisdom for the Conduct of Life, supply Motives to Virtue, and beget a Deteffation of Vice.

P. You lay before me a very agreeable Profpect, and recommend a Part of Knowledge than which nothing can appear more amiable. Nay, I begin already to view Things with other Eyes than formerly, and am impatient to hear your Directions for the Profecution of a Study, from which I am like to derive fo many Advantages.

G. Nor shall you wait long for the Satisfaction you defire. It were Injustice to deny giving all possible Assistance to one, who discovers so high a Relish for these Studies, and so uncommon a Capacity of Improvement. I shall begin there-

fore with observing, that History ought to precede most other Parts of Learning, and prepare the Way for them. It is remarkably level to the Capacities of Youth, and suited to the

Make and Constitution of their Minds. For the reading of History, serves not only to instruct, but also to entertsin; and the great Secret of Education lies, in knowing how to render Learning agreeable, that the Mind may find in it something inviting and captivating, and be drawn to the Pursuit of # from Liking and Inclination. Besides, no Study is better adapted towards exciting Curiofity, which is but an Appetite after Knowledge, and therefore ought carefully to be cherished. Consider then, my dear Pupil, that by reading History, you will enrich your Memory with a great Variety of agreeable and useful Facts, which while they gratify your Curiofity, will at the same time contribute to form your Heart and Understanding. Reflect only upon your own Mind, and the Inclinations you therein feel. When any new and uncommon Object is presented to you, how impatient are you to examine all its Parts, and be informed of its Nature and Use? You take a Pleasure in extending your Acquaintance among your Companions, and learning all their Diversions. This is a commendable Inclination, and highly deferving of Encouragement. All I want is, to direct this Bent aright, and apply it to noble and worthy Pursuits. If the limited Acquaintance you have in the World, the Objects that furround you within so small an Extent, and some minute Transactions of present Times, furnish Matter of Inquiry and Amusement, and are sufficient to excite your Curiofity: how much greater Delight may you reasonably propose to yourself, in extending the Bounds of this Knowledge, by taking a View of the Pursuits, Employments, and Inclinations of Men of all Ages and Conditions; by travelling into distant Nations, traversing the vast Regions of the Universe, and carrying your Researches back through the long Series of Ages which have succeeded one another since the Creation of the World? These great Advantages you will attain by the Study of History. It lays open to you all Countries, Times, and Transactions, and makes you in a Manner, an Eye-Witness to the astonishing Changes and Revolutions that have from time to time happened in the World. By peruling the Records of past Ages, we carry ourselves back to the first Original of things, and enter upon a new Kind of Existence. We see the World rising out of nothing, -behold how it was governed in its Infancy, how overflowed and destroyed in a Deluge of Water, and again

repeopled. We trace the first Institution and Establishment of Kingdoms and Commonwealths, observe how they rose, stourished, and decayed, and enter into a kind of Intimacy and Correspondence with the several great Men who contributed to these mighty Revolutions. And here it is chiefly, that by taking a View of the Actions and Behaviour of those that have gone before us, and examining into their Atchievements, Virtues, and Faults, the Mind comes to be furnished with prudent Maxims and Resections, and is enabled to form wife and unerring Rules for the Conduct of Life, both in a private and public Capacity.

P. I should be glad to be informed in what Manner these Maxims and Regulations of Life are to be got from the reading of History, that I may know how to apply to it with more.

Profit.

G. This is an ample Subject, were I to handle it in its full Extent; but I shall confine myself at present to some important Reflections, such as will point out in the most obvious Manner what you desire to know. And first, as History is a Representation of Mankind, in all the various Circumstances and Conditions of Life; and lays before us their Characters, Counsels, Designs, and the Results of them; this apparently tends to the Enlargement of the Understanding. and will prove the best Security against the Prejudices and false Impressions Men are apt to contract from Education. and the prevailing Vices of the Age in which they live. It is almost impossible for young Minds, not to receive a strong Tincture from the Manners and Opinions of those with whom they converse. And if Riches, Honours, and the Splendor of a public Life, are the grand Objects of Pursuit. and draw after them the Applaule of Mankind, it is easy to conceive what Effect this will have, and how early we shall begin to give way to the Impressions of Ambition and Avarice. We see great Court paid to Men of Wealth and Power, they are flattered and extolled by all that approach them, and are so far the Objects of universal Esteem, that the rest of Mankind seem ambitious of sharing their Favour, and pride themselves in being of the Number of their Friends. Hence we are led to look upon that as really valuable, which we see every body set a Value upon; and to affix Ideas of Worth and Dignity to these external Advantages of Life, that make no Part of, nor depend upon ourselves. Now by looking into the Transactions of past Ages, we shall be best enabled to correct these mistaken Notions, and form a true Judgment of what is deserving of Admiration and Praise. Vol. 1.

For History prefents us with many Examples of Men who made a mighty Noise in the World, were highly honoured in their Lives, and passed thro' the greatest Dignities, but are now covered with Infamy and Reproach: while others. in the calm Enjoyment of a private Life, without any thing of that external Pomp which dazzles vulgar Minds, were the Delight of all that knew them, and have left behind them a Name grateful to Posterity. The Reason is plain. It is not a Man's Station, but the Virtues which adorn his Station, that recommend him to the Approbation of the Difinterested and Wise. And therefore, if you are ambitious of a rational and lasting Esteem, the Experience of former Times will teach you to aspire, not so much after Places of Rank and Distinction, as those Accomplishments which will enable you to pass through Life with Dignity and Applause. For thus adorned, you cannot even in a private Station be without Honour; and if called to public Employments, must acquire accumulated Praise. Reflect then within yourself. whether it is not one of the most important Lessons of human Life, thus to arm the Mind against popular Errors, and the infinuating Language of the Passions; and dispose it to hearken to the calm Voice of Reason and Truth. For thus will Men know how to pass a sound Judgment upon great and good Actions, and finding that Virtue and Probity are the only Way to solid and true Renown, will begin with establishing these as the Foundation of their After-conduct.

And as History in this Manner directs to the Pursuit of what is truly great and Praise-worthy, so will it prove the best Guide to conduct us thro' all the Intricacies of Life. For here we shall see what Measures and Counsels make the Issues of things fortunate, and what kind of Behaviour it is, that involves the Authors of it in Ruin. Above all we shall be taught to be diffident of ourselves, and to guard against our Passions as our most dangerous Enemies. For there is a certain Impotence of Mind, which by making Men Slaves to the present prevailing Inclination, not only works Havock and Destruction in Families, but has often laid whole Countries and Kingdoms desolate. And the Examples of this Kind, which frequently occur in History, are most likely to put Men upon their Guard, and make them sensible of the great Importance of Continence and Moderation. It is the first Part of Wisdom, says a celebrated Poet, not to be a Fool; and in like Manner, it is the first Part of Virtue to strengthen the Mind against the Attacks of Vice, and secure all the Avenues by which it might make its Approaches. A Man

who has attained to a thorough Command over himself, and knows when to indulge, and when to repress his Desires, builds his Happiness on a firm and unshaken Foundation; and by establishing Peace within, secures a Tranquility not subject to be ruffled by the Storms and Sallies of Passion. These and such like Maxims of Prudence delineated in His tory, and which the Reading of it often suggests, will teach you to begin with yourfelf betimes, to take an Account of your own Mind, its Inclinations, Appetites, and Defires; that you may thereby establish that Subordination of its Powers to Reason, that entire Harmony of Affections, which is the Source of Virtue, and a well-regulated Life. And here let me observe to you, that by this Means you will not only be qualified to acquit yourfelf with Applause in every Character. when you come to enter upon the greater Scenes of Life; but will be also reconciled to such present Accidents and Occurrences, as may hitherto perhaps have given you no fmall Mortification. To illustrate my Meaning by a familiar Instance. You have Parents that are extremely indulgent, and every Day give Proofs of their Love and Affection for you, and yet they do not think fit to gratify you in all your Defires. When you alk for new Cloaths, the Demand is not always granted; and if a youthful Vanity prompts you to aspire after every Piece of Finery that prevails among those of your Age, they now and then check the growing Inclination, and you are obliged to put up with a Refusal. On these Occasions, you are sometimes no doubt greatly disgusted, and tempted to think the Behaviour of your Parents harsh, unreasonable, and severe. But when by the Study here recommended, you see the ill Consequences of a Man's not being used early to Opposition and Contradiction; that thereby ill Habits are apt to grow upon him, and he becomes quite unfit for the Practice of that Self-denial and Restraint, for which there is so frequent Occasion in Life; you will then own and approve the Wisdom of your Parents, in accustoming you becomes to this Virtue, and think it a Happiness, that there is already fome Foundation laid for that Command and Mastery over yourself, which it must henceforward be one great Aim of your Life to acquire.

P. Indeed you here propose an Example, that leaves a very strong Impression upon my Mind; and had this Ressection ever occurred to me before, it might have prevented many Mortifications and Heart-burnings, that were for the time at least very

irksome to bear.

G. It is well that you begin already to be convinced of these Truths. Experience and Observation will I doubt not contribute to root them deeply in your Mind. But to return to our Subject. As from what has been already faid you fee, that History best teaches what is honourable and becoming in all the various Stations of Life, and how a Man may acquit himself with Dignity, if Fortune smiles upon him, and recommends him to Places of Credit and Power; so will it give you the truest Infight into the Instability of human things, and thereby prepare you for those Revolutions and Changes, which in the Course of Life may happen. For when you look back into the Annals of past Ages, you see not only particular Men and Families experience these Alterations, but even mighty Kingdoms, and potent Empires, have undergone the same Fate. Greece and Rome, heretofore famous for their invincible Armies, renowned Commanders, and the Extent of their Dominions, are now brought to a Level with other Nations, yea funk into the most abject State of Slavery. The Arts and Sciences that flourished in so eminent a Degree among them, and spread their Reputation fo far, are in a great measure dispersed into other Countries, and have contributed to raise them out of the Obscurity in which they were long involved. And if great and powerful States are not exempt from these Changes, well may we expect them in the Fortunes of particular Men. And how useful must that Study be, which not only teaches us to acquit ourselves well, upon any sudden Elevation and Success; but also arms us against the adverse Accidents of Life, so that no Reverse of Fortune shall be able to break the Harmony of our Minds? For here we meet with many Examples of Men, who after supporting public Stations with Honour, have shone out no less illustrious in private Life: others again, finking fuddenly from Riches to Poverty, have by their Behaviour added a Dignity to their low and depressed Condi-These are the Models which History lays before you, and by following these you will make yourself great, wise, and esteemed, in every Sphere of Life. If called to public Employments, you will know how to fill them with Luftre; and being well apprized of the Instability of human Affairs, will not fuffer any Attachments to grow upon you, that by a Reverse of Fortune might destroy the Balance within. A Mind rightly conflituted, is not intoxicated with Prosperity; but still looking forward, and foresceing the Possibility of a Change, disposes itself to submit without Murmuring or Regret.

I have

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I have one Observation more to make before I leave this Subject, and it is: That History acquaints us with the different Characters of Men, and lays before us their Views, Interests, and Designs. By this Means we become instructed in the several Windings and Labyrinths of the Human Heart, and may be faid to enter into the Commerce of the World. before we meddle with the Business and Transactions of it. And of how great Advantage this may be in the future Conduct of your Life, will not need many Words to explain. Were you fent abroad into the World, quite a Stranger to the Manners and Cuttoms of it, and unacquainted with the Difpositions and Characters of Mankind, you would be liable to be deceived in every Instance, and could not attain the Capacity of judging in difficult Circumstances and Conjunctures, but by Experience of Errors patt. For being a Stranger to Deceit yourself, you would not suspect it in others, and by laying your Heart open to all without Distinction, would give selfish and designing Men an Opportunity of drawing you into their Snares. Now History is in this Case a safe and sure Teacher; for there, without Hazard to ourselves, we are made wife by the Experience of others. We fee the Passions of Mankind, their interfering Interests, and all the Artifices by which they impose upon one another. We are taught to be upon our Guard against Flattery, to shun the Contagion of Vice, to disclaim all Commerce with the Dissolute and Abandoned, and affociate only with the Wife and Good. me whether these are not Advantages you ought to covet, and whether they do not make the Study of History appear well worthy of your Attention?

P. I must be very flow of Apprehension indeed, not to own this, nor are you to wonder after the Description given, if I think every Hour an Age till I enter feriously upon this Part of Knowledge. Begin therefore according to your Promise, and instruct me in what Manner I am to proceed, so as to draw the greatest Advantage from the Study I am to enter

upon.

G. That is properly now my Task, and accordingly I set about it with Joy. And here let me first observe to you, that as History is a Recital of past Events, and Occurrences that have been carried on in different Countries, and in a Series of Ages the one succeeding the other; in order to reap the Fruits of it in their full Extent and Maturity, it will be neceffary to have some previous Knowledge of the Succession of Times, and of the several Nations and Kingdoms, where these Transactions took place. For it so happens, that the Revo- Z_3 lutions

lutions of one Age often give rife to, and are fixedly connected with those of another. And therefore we can form but very confused Notions of the Rise and Fall of Empires, and the Establishment of States, without some such general Comprehension of the whole Current of l'ime, as may enable us to trace out distinctly the Dependence of Events, and distribute them into those Periods and Divitions, that shall lay the whole Chain of past Transactions in a just and orderly Manner before us. This is that Part of Knowledge which the Learned diftinguish by the Name of Chronology; importing a Discourse concerning Time. In like manner, the Situation of Kingdoms in respect of one another, and their different Interests and Views, often give rife to Wars, Devastations, and other memorable Occurrences; infomuch that if we would fee clearly into the Causes of those Quarrels that have divided the World, and comprehend the Motives upon which the feveral Princes acted, it is necessary that we acquaint ourselves with the various Distributions of the Earth, the Extent of Kingdoms and Commonwealths, and their Subdivisions and Dependencies. For thus shall we understand how the convenient Situation of one Country or Province in respect of another, by rouzing the Ambition of some neighbouring State, powerful and aspiring, brought on mighty Wars and Contentions, and aggrandizing one Nation at the Expence of another, paved the Way to the greater Empires. But this last Branch of Science, known by the Name of Geography, having been already handled in a preceding Chapter, I thall fay nothing more of it here. The other I purposely reserved till now, resolving not only to premise it as an Introduction to History, but also to make it serve for a Guide to conduct you through the feveral Periods and Divisions of it.

P. As from your Manner of representing Things, I see clearly into the Dependence they have one upon another, and that Chronology must necessarily precede History, in order to throw some needful Illustrations upon it; I can patiently bear this Interruption, and suspend my Curiosity after Things past, until I carry this Guide and Conductor along with me.

G. And in return I promise you that you will have no Cause to repent it. Now Chronology, as I said before, is a Science that takes account of Time, and adjusts it to past Transactions. I shall not trouble you with the nice Speculations of Philosophers, in the Definitions they have endeavoured to give us of Time, as tending rather to perplex than illustrate the Matter. Let it suffice to observe, that the Idea of it seems to rise from the Resection of our own Minds,

when

when in turning our Thoughts upon the general Course of Things, we confider some as present, some as past, and some as to come. For here Consideration is had of various Periods, not co-existent, but following one another in Succeffion; and the Interval between any two of these Periods, is what we properly call a Space of Time. The general Idea thus explained, it will be easy to trace its different Shapes and Modifications. For in taking account of things past, they appear to the Mind either as existing together, or as distant from one another by various Intervals. And when these Intervals come to be compared, some of them appearing longer than others, and these longer being considered as double or triple the shorter, hence we get the Notion of measuring one Portion of Time by another, than which nothing can tend more to render our Ideas of it clear and diftinct. For when any Extent of Time is too large for the Mind to take in at once, by thus confidering it as a Compofition of some lesser Space, and equal to a certain Repetition of it, the Idea is ascertained, and passes in a distinct Review of all its Parts before us. But then, when we come to apply these Measures to Time, either as running on in continual Succeffion, or as already past and gone, we find ourselves lost in an unmeasurable Depth, and meet with nothing to bound us either Way. This makes it necessary to fix upon some deter-, minate Point or Points in this infinite Duration, from which, as from a Beginning, the various Measures of Time, as Days, Months, Years, &c. may be numbered either backwards or forwards. And accordingly feveral Roots or Terms of this Kind have been devised by different Nations, as they happened to think one thing or another more worthy of Remembrance, and therefore fit to give a Date to other Transactions. They are called Epochas or Æras, as being a kind of Resting-Place for the Mind, from which to look about it, and begin its Computations.

Now from what has been faid you will readily perceive, that the whole Science of Chronology may be fitly divided into two Parts or Branches. One comprehending the Knowledge of the various Measures and Periods by which Time is computed; and the other describing the several Æras and Epochas, from which, according to different Nations, Events are dated. For by knowing these two, you are Master of the whole Current of Time; as being not only able to calculate the Length of any Interval or Distance, but also by comparing the Computation of various Ages and Kingdoms, to sit them

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them one to another, and by adjusting the whole to form Standard Period, regulate the entire Succession of past Transactions.

P. I see it evidently; and as the Measures and Periods of Time seem naturally to come in first, being those by which we compute from the others, I should be glad that you begin

with them.

G. I design so. And first, as the Idea of Time in general is acquired, by confidering the Parts of Duration as existing in Succession, and distant from one another by several Intervals; so the Idea of any particular Time or Length of Duration, as a Day, a Month, a Year, &c. is obtained, by obferving certain Appearances uniformly returning at regular and seemingly equi-distant Periods. For thus we get the Notion of equal Spaces, and by variously multiplying and combining these, can form to ourselves different Measures of Time, of different Lengths, according to the Exigency of things. Now the Motions of the Sup and other Heavenly Bodies, by reason of their Constancy and Equability, easily invited Men to make them the Standard by which to regulate these several Dimensions. And because the apparent diurnal Revolution of the Sun, was not only constant and equable, but frequent and of a shorter Circuit; hence it naturally became the first Measure of Time, under the Denomination of a Day.

A Day therefore may be defined to be a Division of Time, drawn from the Appearance and Disappearance of the Sun;

and is of two Kinds, Artificial, and Natural.

The Artificial Day, which feems to be that primarily meant by the Word Day, is the Time of Light, or of the Sun's Stay above the Horizon, determined by his Rifing and Setting: In Opposition to which, the Time of Darkness, or of the Sun's Continuance below the Horizon, from Setting to Rising

again, is called Night.

The Natural, or as it is also called the Civil Day, is that Space of Time, wherein the Sun compleats his Circuit round the Earth; or to speak properly and astronomically, the Time of an entire Revolution of the Equator. Different Nations have acted with great Diversity of Choice, in fixing the Beginning of their Days; some computing from the Rising, others from the Setting of the Sun, and others again from his passing the upper or lower Meridian. Hence the ancient Babylonians, Persians, Syrians, and most other Eastern Nations, with the present Inhabitants of the Balearick Islands, the Greeks, &c. begin their Day with the Sun's Rising. The ancient

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ancient Athenians and Jews, with the Austrians, Bohemians, Marcemanni, Silesians, modern Italians, and Chinese, reckon from the Sun's Setting. The ancient Umbri and Arabians, with the modern Astronomers, from Noon. And the Egyptians and Romans, with the modern English, French, Dutch, Germans, Spaniards, and Portuguese, from Midnight. And as different People thus varied as to the Time of beginning the Day, so were their different Distributions and Divisions of it into Parts; some distinguishing the Time of the Artificial Day into twelve equal Portions, which therefore in different Seasons of the Year must be of different Lengths. But the Distinction that now most generally prevails, is that of the whole Space of Day and Night into twenty-four Hours, which being so well known to you already, will need no farther Illustration.

P. We have now, I fee, got one Division of Time, and I am much mistaken as to your Manner of proceeding hitherto, or from this small Beginning, you will deduce the whole

System of Chronology.

G. That indeed is my Design, and will I hope, in the End, turn confiderably to your Advantage. The more simple and fewer the Principles are with which we fet out, the easier it will be to comprehend the Science built upon them. In fact, all the Periods and Distinctions of Time we meet with in Chronology, are no other than various Combinations of this first Measure, accommodated to the particular Wants of Mankind, the different Appearances of the Heavens, and the feveral Intervals of past Transactions. Men were no doubt in the Beginning, contented with the fimple Revolution of a Day, and for some little Time it would well enough serve all the Purposes expected from it. But as the World advanced in Age, and the Intervals between different Transactions became large and extended, the Number of Days would multiply so fast, as soon to discover the Necessity of instituting more comprehensive Measures of Time, for the easy and convenient Computation of these longer Spaces. This was done by combining Days into various Systems and Classes of different Lengths, according to the Exigency of Things, which gave rife to the Institution of Months, Years, Olympiads, Lustra, &c. And here again the Motions of the heavenly Bodies were found to be of fingular Use. For as before, the Sun, by his apparent Revolution round the Earth, had marked out the Space of a Day; so the other heavenly Bodies, by their feveral Motions, and a regular Succession of various Phases and Appearances, directed Mankind to such Combinations of their Days, as corresponded with the aforesaid Changes. Thus many of the Distributions of Time, became not only useful in Computation, but served also as Measures of the Phenoniena and Revolutions of the Heavens. Hence the ffrict Connection between Astronomy and Chronology, this latter being in a manner wholly founded on the other, and pre-supposing some general Knowledge of it. But altho' in the more early Ages of the World, the Divisions of Time were made to correspond exactly with the heavenly Motions, and Rules of Intercalation provided, to bring the Revolutions of different Luminaries to an Agreement; yet it is now found more convenient, to regulate Time by the annual Motion of the Sun only, neglecting, at least in Civil Computation, the Lunar Revolutions. But as ancient Chronology cannot well be understood, without some Knowledge of these also, I shall contrive my following Explications so as to answer all the Ends of this Science, and give you some general Idea of it, both in its ancient and modern State.

I have already observed, that all the Measures of Time made use of in Chronology, are no other than various Combinations of Days, accommodated to the Exigencies of Things. therefore now remains, that I take account of the several Divisions and Classes, shew how they are formed, and in what manner applied to the regulating of path Transactions, and connecting the Series of History. The first and most fimple Combination of this Kind now in use, is what we call a Week; and is a System of seven Days continually recurring, instituted to perpetuate the Memory of the Creation, which being finished in fix Days, the seventh was appointed 2 Day of Reft, and thenceforward every feventh Day, in Commemoration of this great Event. It is observable that not only the Jews, to whom this Institution was immediately revealed by God himself, but the Syrians also, the Egyptians, and most of the oriental Nations, made use of this Division of Time into Weeks. And this was probably owing to some Remains of the Tradition of the Creation, which they had still retained with divers others. The Names given to the Days of the Weck at present, are those which were in use among the ancient Heathen Nations, who denominated them from the seven Planets. Thus the first Day was called Sunduy, Dies Solis; the second Monday, Dies Lune, &c. and so for the rest. The Reason of these Denominations is best derived from the ancient Astrology. For the Professor of that Science, distributing the Government and Direction of all the Hours of the Week among the feven Planets, so as

that the Government of the first Hour of the first Day fell to Saturn, that of the first Hour of the second Day to Jupiter, &c. they gave each Day the Name of the Planet which presided over the first Hour thereof. And these Names, with some little Variation of their Order, are, as I observed before,

still retained among the Christians of the West.

The next considerable Division of Time is into Months. These at their first Institution regarded chiesly the Lunar Motions, and were accordingly regulated by them. But as the Phases and Appearances of the Moon, are now of little or no Confideration in Civil Computations, a great Alteration has hereby happened in Chronology; and a Month most commonly means no more than that Space of Time by which we divide the Year into twelve Parts. Now for the farther Illustration of this Matter, we are to observe, that Months may be fitly divided into Astronomical and Civil. Astronomical Months, (so far as it is useful to confider them here,) are those measured by the Revolution and Phases of the Moon. They are again subdivided into Periodical and Synodical. The Periodical Month is that Space of Time, in which the Moon by her Motion, returneth to the same Place of her Orb from whence the let out; and confifts of twentyseven Days, seven Hours, and forty-three Minutes nearly. The Synodical Month is computed from one Conjunction of the Sun and Moon, to the next Conjunction following, and differs from the former in this; that whereas the Periodical Month respects only the Moon's Orbit, and her entire Revolution in the Zodiac, the Synodical is so called in respect of her Conjunction with the Sun. Now after the Time of this Conjunction, the Sun does not continue in the same Place. of the Zodiac, but moves forward towards the East: upon which it falls out, that the Moon finishing her Course, does not find the Sun again in the same Point where she left him, he being removed almost a whole Sign from his former Place. So that to overtake the Sun again, it plainly appears, that a certain Space of Time is requisite besides the Periodical, which makes up the Synodical Month. The Quantity of a Synodical Month is not at all Times the same; because the Sun's apparent Motion being different in different Parts. of his Orbit, must occasion some Variety in this Respect. The mean Motion however, as Aftronomers call it, is computed at twenty-nine Days and a half. This Synodical Revolution of the Moon, was the proper Lunar Month of the Ancients, and at the same Time shews the Reason, why in the Luni-solar Year, the Months consisted of twenty-nine

and thirty Days alternately. For in the Month of twentynine Days, the Appendage of twelve Hours being omitted, was to be added to the next Synodic Revolution; which confifting likewife of twenty-nine Days twelve Hours, did with the twelve Hours omitted in the former Month, make up an exact Space of thirty Days. And this alternate Distribution of Months, must we see happen constantly and regularly.

What has been faid will be sufficient to give an Idea of the Astronomical Month, in Use chiefly among the Ancients, and here explained, to pave the Way to what may be afterwards said of their Chronology. As for the Civil Month, it is no more than that Space of Time, by which we divide a Year into twelve Parts, and is different in different Nations. The Civil Calendar Months which now obtain thro' Europe, consist of all thirty or thirty-one Days, February excepted, which every south Year includes twenty-nine Days, and the other Years only twenty-eight; but of this more hereafter.

We come now to the last and greatest Distribution of Time founded on the Motion of the Heavenly Bodies; I mean that taken from the Sun's apparent Revolution in the Ecliptic, and called a Year. I shall not enter into the nice Distinctions of Astronomers, who divide the Year into Sidereal and Tropical, as that would add but little to your Chronological Knowledge. It will better answer my Purpose, to give a short History of the Year, with its various Changes, and present Form. Besides the more obvious Revolution of the Sun, by which he is carried round the Earth in the Space of twenty-four Hours, and marks out the Quantity of a Natural Day; there is also a second Motion belonging to him, carried on more flowly, and not compleated till after some con-Interable Time. This is what Aftronomers call his annual Revolution, by which fetting out from some remarkable Part of the Heavens, as the Equinoctial or Solstitial Points, he is observed after a certain Number of Days, to return again to the fame, and so on in continual Succession. Now as in the Case of the Diurnal Motion, his regular Appearance and Disappearance, naturally drew after it the Observation of Mankind, and directed them to the easy and convenient Distinction of Time into Days: fo here, his annual Motion being attended with a Viciffitude of Scalons, which follow one another in Succession, and always return, when the Sun returns to the same Part of his Orbit which produced them before: it would not be long before Men would become fensible of these Alterations, and observing them to be uniform and constant, would by a Curiosity natural to them, be for finding

. out if possible the Causes of them. Add to this, that as the fixing of Seed-time and Harvest, with several other important Concerns of Life, depended upon this Discovery, they were likely to be the more diligent in their Researches. Having therefore found that this Change of Seasons was occasioned by the Sun's apparent Revolution in the Ecliptic, they fet themselves to compute the Time in which this Revolution was performed, and having determined it in the best Manner they could, thereby ascertained the due Return of the Sea-This fecond Period of the Sun is what we call a Year, fons. and by the nicest Observations of later Astronomers, is found to contain 365 Days, 5 Hours, and 40 Minutes. It cannot be expected however, that in the earlier Ages of the World, when Astronomy was but in its Infancy, this Accuracy of Calculation could be obtained. Men approached gradually to the true Measure of the Year, correcting former Errors by Their first Computations, as is natural new Observations. to suppose, must be deficient. The most ancient Form of the Year we know of, is that which divides it into 360 Days. This is plainly the Mosaic Year, and is by some, not without Reason, thought to be as old as the Deluge. For Moles in the Description which he gives us of that general Catastrophe, affigns 150 Days to five Months, which is allowing 30 Days to a Month, and 12 Months of 30 Days make exactly 360 Days. Indeed Herodotus ascribes this Form of the Year to the Egyptians; and many learned Men, moved by his Authority, think that Moses describes the Deluge, not by any Years or Months in use so far backwards as the Times of which he wrote, but by that Form of the Year which he had learnt in Egypt; it being said of him in holy Writ, that he was skilled in all the Learning of the Egyptians. But not to dispute about the Antiquity of this Form; so far.is certain from the Testimony of Herodotus, that it was in use for some Time among the Egyptians. An Error however of upwards of five Days, was too confiderable to pass long unobserved. Accordingly we are told, that Hermes Trismegistus added five Davs more to the Account, by which means they approached pretty near to the Truth. On this footing Thales is faid to have instituted the Grecian Year: but that Form did not hold long among the Greeks, they on account of their Festivals preferring the Luni-solar Year. This consisted of 12 Synodic Months, of 29 and 30 Days alternately, making in all 354 Days to the Year. But as this fell short of the true folar Course by eleven Days, and would thereby in Time shift the Beginning of the Year backwards thro' all

the Seasons; to provide against this Inconvenience, Rules of Intercalation were contrived, to keep the Motions of the Luminaries as near as possible to an Agreement. These Intercalations I shall have occasion to discourse more fully of hereafter, and would only at present observe; that the Remen Year as introduced by Romulus, and afterwards reformed by Numa, was likewise measured by Lunar Months, with intercalary Days appointed, to keep the Beginning of the Year fixed to the same Seasons. The Care of these Intercalations was committed to the Pontifex Maximus, who neglecting his Trust, let things run to the utmost Consusion, insomuch that in the Time of Julius Casar, the Winter Months were fallen back into Autumn, and the Autumn Months into Summer. Casar set about regulating these Disorders, and to restore the Seasons to their proper Months, ordered the Year in which he began the Reformation of the Calendar, to confift of 445 Days. This done, by the Affistance of Sofigenes, a famous Mathematician of Alexandria, he instituted a Solar Year of 365 Days and fix Hours. And as the fix Hours could not be confidered or taken notice of in civil Use, he ordered them to be neglected till they made a Day, which happening every fourth Year, that fourth Year was to confift of 366 Days, and the intercalary Day to be inserted after the Feast of the Terminalia, which ended on the 23d of February. Now the Day after this being among the Romans called the fixth of the Calends of March, Sextus Kalendas Martii, this in the intercalated Years was ordered to be seckoned twice, whence every fourth Year they had the Sextus Kalendas, &c. bis, or twice repeated, which was the Occasion of giving this Year the Name of Biffextile.

But though this was a very happy Constitution of the Year, and what long obtained thro' Europe, as coming very near the Truth, yet is it not Astronomically exact. We have seen already that the Sun's annual Revolution, or as Astronomers call it, the Tropical Year, consists according to the nicest and best Observations, of 365 Days, 5 Hours, and 49 Minutes. But the Julian Form computes the Year at 365 Days, 6 Hours, which is 11 Minutes greater than the Truth. And altho' this in the Consideration of single Years, appears to be but of little Moment, yet in the Space of a Century it amounts to almost a whole Day, and in Proportion as Time runs on, the Error becomes more considerable. In the Year 325, at the Time of the Nicene Council, the vernal Equinox was found to fall upon the 21st of March. But by this Error of eleven Minutes in the Julian

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Account, which in the Space of 133 Years grows to be a whole Day, it so fell out, that in the Year 1582, when Pope Gregory fet about the Reformation of the Calendar, the Equinoxes and Solftices had gone backwards ten entire Days; infomuch that the vernal Equinox, instead of the 21st, fell upon the eleventh of March. To remedy this Disorder, Gregery ordered ten Days to be suppressed, and what would otherwise have been the eleventh of March, to be called the 21st, that thereby the Equinox might fall on the fame Day as at the Time of the Council of Nice. And to prevent the like Variation for the future, he inflituted a new Form of Years, called the Gregorian, in which once in 133 Years, a Day is taken out of the Calendar. That this might be done with the least Confusion possible, he contrived it in the following Manner. From the 1600 Year of the Christian Æra. every hundredth Year, which according to the Julian Form is always a Biffextile or Leap-year, was to become common; but every four hundredth Year was to continue a Biffextile. as in the Julian Account. By this Computation the Year 1700 was common in the Gregorian Stile: so will 1800 and 1900 be, all which are Biffextile in the Julian Account. But the Year 2000, both in the Julian and Gregorian Forms, will be Biffextile. So that, in short, the whole Difference between these two Methods of Computation is this; that from the 1600 Year of our Lord, of every four Years terminating four Centuries, the three first are common, and the fourth Bissextile. according to the Gregorian Calculation; whereas all four are Leap-years in the Julian.

You see therefore that the Gregorian Account is an Improvement upon the Julian, and carries the Form and Establishment of the Year to as great a Degree of Perfection as it is capable of, the vernal Equinoxes being thereby fixed almost for ever to the 20th or 21st of March. The Julian, or Old Stile 25 it is called, was used in England till September 1752, when the Gregorian or New Stile took place, as it does in most other Christian Countries of Europe. And this was the Reason of that Difference of eleven Days between our and foreign Computations: for as I said before, Pope Gregory when he set about reforming the Year, ordered ten Days to be suppressed; and as in Consequence of his new Form, another Day was struck out of the Calendar at the End of the 17th Century, this makes in all eleven Days, the present Difference between the New and the Old Stiles. I have thus given you a short Account of the Year, with all the Variations it has undergone, till its last Reformation under Pope Gregery XIII. where the Accuracy

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of Calculation is carried fo far, as to leave no Room for A Improvements, I might now enter into deeper Refear upon this Subject, and lay before you fuch other Conflitut of the Year, as have prevailed in different Ages and Natio but these are Inquiries rather of Amusement than Use. has been faid will, I flatter myfelf, ferve as a fufficient Fe dation for what other Particulars of the Science you find it necessary to render yourself Master of, in the fur Profecution of your Studies. Heaps of Definitions are denforme to the Memory, and apt rather to create Dife than convey any useful and fatisfying Knowledge. But w the Principles of a Science are fully and clearly delineated, more remote Branches lie open to the Mind, and flow in Ease and Pleasure, in the Course of a Man's Reading Observation. Were I now to give you a Detail of all various Forms of Years and Months, used at different Tit and in different Countries; the Multiplicity of Partici would puzzle and confound you, and only ferve to creone another out of the Mind. But as from what has I advanced in the Reflections offered above, you know Grounds upon which the feveral Calculations are built, all rest will come in course, and be comprehended and reta ed with Eafe, when you apply to the Histories of partici Nations.

P. I am fensible that what you say is just, and flatter is self I sufficiently understand all that is at present necessary be known with regard to the Measures of Time already scribed. But I have still one Question to put to you, be you quit this Subject. You told me, I remember, that all different Measures of Time made use of in Chronology, we no more than certain Systems and Collections of Davs, greater or less Extent, according to the Quantity of the Per to be measured. You have likewise illustrated this Obsertion, by shewing me in what Manner Days are combined gether, so as to form Weeks, Months, and Years. But I still desirous to know, whether in the Computation of a large Intervals, it has not been found necessary to proceed Combinations of Years. I think I have met with someth of this kind in ancient History, and doubtless it is of Montenough to merit a particular Notice.

G. You do well to put me in mind of a Thing so me rial in ancient Chronology. It is certain the Eastern Nati had formed several of these Classes of Years, by which the not only computed Time in general, but also the Reignstheir particular Princes. Thus Berosus in his History of

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Chaldean Kings, computes by Sari, Nari, and Sosi. Measures of Time, tho' common and well understood in the Age of that Historian, are nevertheless wholly unknown to us, any farther than that they are certain Collections of Years. whose Number we can only guess at. Some magnify the Sarus to three thousand fix hundred Years, a Period of Time altogether beyond Belief. Others again with more Probability, reduce it to that Number of Days, which amounts to just ten old Chaldean Years of three hundred and fixty Days each. But as this Manner of Computation is now altogether laid afide in Chronology, it is of little Moment to puzzle ourselves with Enquiries about it. The Jubilees and Sabbatical Years of the Jews are of far greater Importance; not so much for their Use in Calculations, as because of the Customs depending upon them, and the frequent Allusions made to them both in the Historical and Prophetic Books of Scripture. How for Inflance could Daniel's Prophecy of seventy Weeks be understood, without knowing; that as among the Jews every seventh Day was holy, and a Day of Rest, so likewise was every seventh Year a Year of Rest to the Ground, in which they were neither to fow nor reap-By this means their Time was divided not only into Weeks of Days, but also into Weeks of Years, which last are those alluded to in the above-mentioned Prophecy. Now feventy Weeks in this latter Language, amounting to 400 Years, give fufficient Time for the Accomplishment of all the great Events predicted, as is shewn at large by the Ecclesiastical Historians. As to the Year of Jubilee, there is indeed some Dispute among learned Men; many fixing it to the seventh Sabbatical or 49th Year, while others contend that it was the next Year after. The Reason of this Difference is, that if we suppose it to have fallen on the Year after the seventh Sabbatical Year, then there must have been two Sabbatical Years together, (the Year of Jubilee being also Sabbatical) and of Consequence the Loss of two succeeding Crops, which seems highly improbable. However it is the real Truth of the Matter, and so circumstantially described in Scripture, that one cannot but wonder to see Men endeavouring to explain away the most obvious and clear Texts, for the Sake of a sceming Difficulty. This Year was observed with great Solemnity by the Jews, and was chiefly remarkable for the confiderable Alteration it occasioned in their Properties and Estates; for at this Time, by the express Command of their Law, all Slaves were made free, and all Lands that had been fold or mortgaged, reverted to their ancient Owners. But I Vol. I. A a

shall now quit the Jews, and proceed to two other Distribu-tions of Years, of yet greater Moment in this Science, as being absolutely necessary to the right understanding of the Greek and Roman History. I mean the Olympiads and Lastra. The first of these was a Method of Computation in use among the Greeks, and of great Note in Chronology, as from them the Epocha of the History of that memorable People takes Date. Varre too, in his Division of the whole Series of Time_into three Periods, begins the third or last, which he calls the Æra of true History, from the first Olympiad. Now an Olympiad was a Space of four Years, at the Expiration of which the Olympic Games were celebrated with great Pomp and Solemnity near the City Olympia in Pelapanmefus. They are said by some to have been first instituted by Hercules, in Honour of Jupiter. But being afterwards difcontinued for a Time, they were revived by Iphitus the Son of Praxmides in the 3938 Year of the Julian Period, the 3228 Year of the World, and 776 Years before Christ. From this Time they were continued without Interruption, and became the Epocha from which the Greeks computed their Years. The first Olympiad is marked by the Victory of Co-These Sports were renewed every fifth rebus the Elean. Year, and after a Revolution of four Years compleat. confifted of various Kinds of Exercises, in which such as were to enter the Lists, took great Pains before-hand to accomplish themselves. The Conquerors were distinguished by the most particular Honours, and publickly crowned in an Assembly of all Greece. Nay, so great was the Esteem in which they were held, that at their Return, a Piece of the Wall of the City was pulled down, to give Passage to their Chariot. The Computation by Olympiads feems to have ceased after the 364th, which ended with the Year of Christ 440; for we henceforward meet with no more Mention of them in History. The Lustrum again is a Roman Institution, and used by their Writers to signify a Space of five Years. It took its rife from the Institution of the Census by Servins Tullius. This politic King, having distinguished the Citizens into Classes and Centuries, and ranked them according to the Valuation of their Estates, commanded them to appear on a Day appointed under Arms, and agreeable to the above-mentioned Distribution, in the Campus Martius, which was a large plain Field, lying without the City near the Tiber. Here by the King's Order was made a solemn Lustration or expiatory Sacrifice in the Name of all the People. The Sacrifice confifted of a Sow, a Sheep, and a Bull, whence



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it took the Name of Suovetaurilia: The whole Ceremony was called Lustrum, à luendo, from paying, expiating, clearing, or perhaps from the Goddess Lua, to whom Servius is faid to have built a Temple. But because of the continual Change of Men's Estates, it was ordered that the Census should be renewed every five Years, and it being usually closed by the Lustrum, it was hence that the Word came to signify that Term of Years.

P. You have now, according to your Promise, explained all the most noted Computations of Time, whether ancient or modern. Is there any thing farther to be observed on this Subject, before you enter upon the Consideration of Epo-

chas?

G. Epochas, as I told you before, are certain fixed Points of Time, from which Men begin their Computations, and to which in all their Calculations they refer. Hence by comparing different Transactions with the Epocha, and tracing their various Intervals and Distances, we can ascertain the Years in which they happened, and affign them their Place and Order in the Succession of Time. But it is evident that all this can regard only the Epocha immediately under Confideration. Where the different Epochas are used, as is frequently the Case in History, we must necessarily have some common Measure, by which to compare them together, and discover the Relation they bear to one another. The Creation of the World, the Deluge, the Olympiads, the Building of Rome, and the Birth of Christ, are all celebrated Æras in History, and often made use of in the Computation of Time. It is apparent however, that in reading the Transactions of different Nations, which may be referred to those or other Æras, we shall not know how to connect them together, or comprehend the coincident Times, unless we first establish some general Period, which may serve as the Standard and common Receptacle of all other Epochas. This done, we have only to reduce the several Æras to it; which throws the whole Train of past Events into one connected Series, and exhibits them in their distinct Order of Succession. Such a Standard as that we are speaking of is the Julian Period. And as there is nothing more important in Chronology, than to have a distinct Comprehension of this Period, and to see the Manner of its Application, I shall, in order to give a clearer Infight into the Subject in hand, explain first: the Cycles of which it is composed; then shew, how by the artful Combination of these, such a Measure of Time is framed, as preferves a happy Distinction in all its Parts, so that they are A a 2

in no danger of being confounded or militaken one for another; and laftly, I shall demonstrate the Use of this Period in regulating the several Epochas and Computations of Chro-

nology.

The Confideration of Cycles makes properly a Part of Ecclefiaftical Computations, they being chiefly contrived for determining the N. w and Full Moons, and regulating the Festivals of the Church depending thereon. In a View of Chronology therefore such as this, designed only for the Uses and Purpoles of History, it will not be necessary to confider them any farther than as they go to the Composition of the Julian Period, and consequently make a Part of the Civil Measures of Time. Cycles in the general are no more than certain Periods or Series of Years, proceeding in an orderly Succession from first to last, when they are supposed to begin again, and so preserve the same Tenour in a constant Train Thus the continued Series of Sabbatical of Revolutions. Years among the Yews, is called the Sabbatical Cycle, which thence confifted of feven Years; as a System of fifty Years continually recurring, made their Jubilean Cycle. In like Manner, if we should suppose the Sun and Moon to set out together from any Point of the Zodiac, and after a certain Succession of Years to meet again in the same Point of the Heavens; as this Event must always happen upon the like Revolution of Years; this Number of Years would necessarily form a Cycle, by which to determine for ever the Coincidence of these two Luminaries in the Heavens. And accordingly this is the Intent of the Lunar Cycle, or Cycle of the Moon, of so great Note in Chronology. But in order to trace the Origin and Formation of it with the greater Exactness, we must go back to the ancient Form of the Year in use among the Jews and Greeks, which tho' properly Lunar, yet as they were obliged also to regard the Solar Motions, hence arose the Necessity of Intercalations, and of establishing a Cycle to regulate and adjust these Intercalations. The Year at first . use among the Jews, was not fettled by Aftronomical Rules, but made up of Lunar Months, fet out by the Phases or Appearances of the Moon. When they saw the New Moon, then they began their Months, which consisted alternately of 29 and 30 Days, for the Reafons given above. None of them had fewer than 29 Days, and therefore they never looked for the New Moon before the Night following the 29th Day; and if they then saw it, the next Day was the first Day of the following Month. Neither had any of their Months more than 30 Days; and there-

fore they never looked for the New Moon after the Night following the 30th Day, but if they faw it not then, concluded its Appearance was obstructed by Clouds; and of 12 of these Lunar Months, their common Year consisted. But as this falls 12 Days short of a Solar Year, every one of these common Years, in respect of the Sun's Course, began 11 Days sooner than the former; which in 33 Years, would carry back the Beginning of the Year thro' all the four Seafons. This Inconvenience they were under a Necessity of preventing for the Sake of their Festivals. The Feast of the Passever was fixed to the Middle of the Month Nisan, and ordered to be celebrated by the eating of the Paichal Lamb, and the offering up of the Wave Sheaf, as the first Fruits of their Barley Harvest. The Feast of Pentecost was kept the 50th Day after the 16th of Nisan, the Day on which the Wave Sheaf was offered; and celebrated by the Offering of the two Wave Loaves, as the first Fruits of their Wheat Harvest. And lastly, the Feast of Tabernacles always began on the 15th of Tifri, being fixed to the Time of gathering in the Fruits of the Earth. It is evident therefore that the Paffover could not be observed till the Lambs were grown fit to be eaten, and the Barley to be reaped; nor the Pentecost till the Wheat was ripe, nor the Feast of Tabernacles till the Ingathering of the Vineyard and Oliveyard were over. And therefore these Festivals being fixed to these set Seasons of the Year, it was necessary to adjust the Lunar Reckoning to the Sun's Course, and thereby prevent their Months from receding too far from the Seasons. For this Purpose, sometimes in the third Year, and sometimes in the second, they cast in another Month, making the Year then consust of 13 Months; whereby they constantly reduced their Lunar Year, as far as such an Intercalation could affect it, to that of the Sun, and never suffered the one to vary from the other above a Month. These Intercalations were regulated by the High-Priest and Sanhedrim, and Notice given of what they ordained in this Matter over all the Land. But when they became dispersed over all Nations, so as neither to have proper Opportunities of making the requifite Observations, nor Means of communicating them when made, it was then found necessary to establish fixed and stated Rules of Intercalation, that so they might be every where uniform herein. And upon this Occasion it was, that the Cycles and Astronomical Calculations of the Greeks, were with some little Variation first introduced among them.

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You see therefore that the Jewish Years, tho' properly and fingly confidered they were indeed Lunar, yet by these Intercalations, and the keeping of their Months constantly fixed to the same Seasons, they became in their collective Sums truly Solar. The same Thing happened also among the Greeks, and for a like Reason. Their Years were indeed Lunar, as confifting of Months measured by the Motion of the Moon, but at the same time they took care to adjust these to the Solar Reckoning, for the Sake of their Festivals, especially for the Sake of the Olympiads. For being directed by an Oracle to observe all their solemn Sacrifices and Festivals nata reia. i. e. according to Three; and this being interpreted to mean Years, Months and Days, and that the Years were to be reckoned according to the Course of the Sun, and the Months and Days according to that of the Moon, they thought themselves obliged hereby to observe all these Solemnities, at the fame Seatons of the Year, and on the fame Month, and on the same Day of the Month. And therefore Endeavours were made to bring all these to meet together, that is, to bring the fame Months, and all the Days of them, to fall as near as possible within the Time of the Sun's Course. The Difficulty therefore lay in finding out fuch Interculations as without diffurbing the Lunar Revolutions, would by the additional Months thence arising, keep the regular Months duly fixed to the fame Scasons. For as the Lunar Year fell only 11 Days short of the Solar; to have added these annually, would have broke in upon the Succession of their Months, and destroyed the whole Scheme of their Year. For with them, in the same Manner as with the Yews, their Months always began with a New Moon, and their Years were always made up of these Lunar Months, so as to end exactly with the last Day of the last Moon, and to begin exactly with the first Day of the next Moon. It was necesfary therefore for the bringing of all to fall right according to the Directions of the Oracle, that the Interculation should he made by Months; and to find out fuch an Intercalation of Months, as would at length bring the Solar Year and the Lunar Year to an exact Agreement, so that both should begin from the same Point of Time, was that which was to be done for this Purpole. For thus only could the Solemnities he always kept to the same Scasons of the Year, as well as to the fame Months, and the fame Days of them, and conilantly he made to fall within the Compass of one Lunar Month at most sooner or later, within the same Times of the Solar Year. And therefore in order hereunto Cycles were to be

invented; and to find out such a Cycle of Years, wherein by the Intercalation or Addition of one or more Months, this might be effected, was the great Study and Endeavour of the Astronomers of those Times. The first Attempt that was made for this Purpose was that of the Dicteris, a Cycle of two Years, wherein an Intercalation was made of one Month; but in two Years Time, the Excess of the Solar Year above the Lunar being only 22 Days, and a Lunar Month making 20 Days and an half, this Intercalation, instead of bringing the Lunar Year to a Reconciliation with the Solar, overdid it by 7 Days and an half. This Fault being foon perceived, for the mending of it the Tetraeteris was introduced, which was a Cycle of 4 Years, wherein it was thought that an Inter-calation of one Month would bring all that to rights, which was over-done by the like Intercalation of the Dieteris. And this was contrived chiefly with a Respect to the Olympic Games. For they being the chief of their Solemnities, and celebrated once every four Years, Care was taken to bring them every fourth Year as near as possible to the same Time of the Solar Year, in which they had been performed the Olympiad before. Now this Solemnity, according to the original Institution, was always to begin on the first Full Moon after the Summer Solftice; and it was thought that an Intercalation of one Month in four Years would always bring it to this Time. But four Solar Years exceeding four Lunar Years 44 Days, the adding one Lunar Month, or 20 Days and an half, fell short of curing this Defect, upwards of 14 Days. This Fault likewise soon discovering itself, they intercalated alternatively, one four Years with one Month, and the next four Years with two Months, which brought it to the Octoeteris, or Cycle of eight Years, wherein by intercalating three Months, they thought they brought all to rights, and indeed it came much nearer to it, than any of the former For by this Intercalation the eight Lunar Years were brought so near to the eight Solar Years, that they differed from them only by an Excess of one Day and 14 Hours. And therefore this Cycle continued much longer in use than any of But at length the Error, by increasing every Year, grew great enough to be also discovered, which produced the Invention of several other Cycles, till at length the Metonic Cycle of 19 Years took place, fo called from Meto an Athenian, the Inventor of it. This great Aftronomer found by Calculation, that if the Sun and Moon were supposed to set out together from any Point of the Zodiac, after 19 Solar Revolutions, they would meet again in the felf-fame Point, and A a 4

begin a new Period exactly agreeing with the former. The 10 Solar Revolutions he found to contain 235 Lunations, which make 19 Lunar Years, and 7 Lunar Months, to be added to them by 7 Intercalations. So that the whole Cycle confisted of 12 Lunar Years of 12 Months each, and seven intercalated Years of thirteen Months, which corresponding to 19 Solar or Julian Years, the New and Full Moons after that Space, not only return to the same Days of the Jaliam Year, but nearly to the same Hours of the Day. A Course of Observations therefore determining the Days on which the New and Full Moont happen during one Revolution of this Cycle, will also serve for the next Revolution of the same, and so on in Succession. The chief Use of this Cycle among the Greeks being to settle the Times of celebrating their Solemnities, and that of the Olympiads being the chief of them, on the fixing of which the fixing of all the rest did depend, it was in the first place applied to this Purpose. And as the Olympic Games were always to be celebrated on the first Full Moon after the Summer Solstice, in order to settle the Time of their Celebration, it was necessary in the first This Meto. Place to settle the Time of the Summer Solstice. the Year he introduced his Cycle, observed to be on the 21st Day of the Egyptian Month Phamenoth, which reduced to the Julian Year falls on the 27th of June. And therefore the Greeks having received this Cycle, did from this Time forward celebrate their Olympiads on the first Full Moon after the 27th Day of our June; and henceforth also began their Year from the New Moon preceding. The Year in the Beginning of which the Olympic Games were celebrated, was in their Computation of Time, called the first Year of that Olympiad; and in the Beginning of the fifth Year after they celebrated the next Olympiad, which made the Time from one Olympiad to another to be just four Years, according to the Measure of the Years then used.

I have thus given you a full and I hope intelligible Account of the Metonic Cycle, so famous in ancient Chronology; and still known among us under the Name of the Cycle of the Moon or Golden Number. Upon the ceasing of the Greek Solemnities, the Use of this Cycle also ceased, and so continued for several Centuries, till at length after the Council of Nice, the Christians introduced it into their Calendar, and made use of it in settling Easter, and the other moveable Feasts. For by a Decree of that Council, Easter-day was fixed to the Sunday after the first. Full Moon that sollowed next after the vernal Equinox: Thus it became necessary in the Christian Church as well as among the Greeks, to calculate

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the New and Full Moons in the Heavens, and adjust them to the Solar Course. And as a better Cycle for this Purpose than the 19 Years Cycle was not to be found, because none other can bring the Course of the Sun and Moon to a nearer Agreement, the Chrisian Church accordingly pitched upon it, as the best Rule they could follow for the fixing of their Easter. And so great a Value did they set upon it by reason of its great Usefulness in Ecclesiastical Computations, that the Numbers of it were written in the ancient Calendars in golden Letters; from whence in our present Almanacks, that Number of this Cycle, which accords with the Year for which the Almanack is made, is called the Golden Number. Now the Golden Number for any Year whatsoever of the Christian Æra, may be easily found by the following plain Rule. The first Year of Christ according to the Computation in Old Stile, fell in with the 2d Year of the Lunar Cycle. and therefore if to the given Year of the Christian Æra you add one, and divide the Sum by 19, the Quotient shows the Number of Revolutions of the Cycle from the Beginning of the faid Æra, and the Remainder after Division is the Golden Number required; but if nothing remains, the Golden Number is 19. Suppose for Example the Golden Number of the. Year 1746 were required: Then 1746 added to I makes 1747, and that divided by 19, gives 91 for the Quotient, with a Remainder of 18. And therefore 18 is the Golden Number for that Year; and 91 the Quotient expresses the Number of Revolutions of this Cycle from the Beginning of the Year preceding the Birth of Christ.

P. But does this Cycle of 19 Years bring the Solar and Lunar Revolutions to so exact an Agreement, as to be always

an invariable Rule in this Cafe?

G. Altho' the Metonic Cycle comes indeed very near the Truth, so as to shew the Lunations for the Space of three Centuries without the Error of a single Day; yet the Difference continually increasing, grows in Time to be considerable. For 19 Lunar Years, and 7 intercalated Months, of which this Cycle consists, falling short of 19 Julian Years almost an Hour and an half, hence it hath sollowed, that in every one of the Years of this Lunar Cycle, the New Moons and Full Moons have happened just so much sooner each Month, than in the same Years of the Cycle immediately preceding. And hereby it hath come to pass, that after the elapsing of so many Rounds of this Cycle, as have revolved from the Times of the Nicene Council to the Year 1746, the New Moons and Full Moons in the Heavens, have anticipated the New and

and Full Moons in the Calendar of the Common Praver Book, four Days and an half; because the New Moons and Full Moons are there stated, not according to the present Times, but according to the Times of that Council. These last are called Eccletiastical New Moons, to distinguish them from the true ones in the Heavens; and the general Table or Rule for finding Eagler for ever ma. still be applied, if we make the proper Allowance above described. That is, in calculating the New Moons we must reckon four Days and an half before the Time affigned by the Calendar; or, which amounts to the fame, call the Day of the New Moon as you find it by the Calendar; the fith Day of the Moon's Age. In the Gregorian Reformation of the Calendar, the Golden Number is thrown out, and the Epact introduced in the Place of it. But as it is not my Intention here to meddle with Ecclefiaffical Computations any faither than is necoffary to give a clear Idea of the Cycles that constitute the Julian Period, I shall here conclude my Observations upon the Lunar Cycle, which I have endeavoured to explain in the most full and distinct Manner, not only because of its great Note in ancient Computation, but also for the diffinguished Place it still retains in our Civil Calendar.

P. What other Cycles belides this of the Moon, are made

use of in the Composition of the Julian Period?

G. The Julian Period, belides the Lunar Cycle, takes in also two others: That of the Sun as it is commonly called, and the Cycle of Indiction. The Solar Cycle is fo called, not from expressing any Number of Series of Solar Revolutions, but because by its Help we know the Dominical Letter, or the Character of Sunday. But to enable you the better to comprehend this, I must observe, that as we divide Time into Weeks, and describe the Day of the Week by feven feveral Names; fo are those Davs distinguished in the Calendar by feven Letters fet in alphabetical Order before them, and repeated to them in a constant Round throughout the whole Year. These Letters are the first seven of the Alphabet, A, B, C, D, E, F, G; and the Cuttom is, to affign the Letter A to the first Day of the Year; which it it happens to be a Sunday, then A is the Letter for Sunday, or the Dominical Letter, and the rest are applied in Order to the other Davs of the Week. Now as the Number of Days in a Week are feven, and the Number of Letters applied to them also seven, it is evident, that whatever Letter answers to the first Sunday of the Year, will stand for Sunday all the Year round, the Revolution of Days and Letters being in

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his Respect the same, and perfectly coinciding. It is manifest ikewise, that if the Year was made up of an exact Number of Weeks, the Dominical Letter would continue constantly nd invariably the fame, because the first Day of the Year would always fall upon the fame Day of the Week, and of Consequence create no Interruption or Disturbance in the Order and Succession of Letters. But as this is not the Case. he odd Day or Days must inavoidably break in upon the leries, and to take Account of these Alterations, is the Design f the Solar Cycle. As the common Julian Year confifts of 52 Weeks and one Day; if the first Day of the Year falls pon a Sunday making A the Dominical Letter, then will he last Day of the Year also fall mon a Sunday, and the rst Day of the next succeeding Year will be Monday. s the Letter A is always appropriated to the first Day of the Cear, it now of course becomes the Characteristick of Mon-'ay, and the Letter that in due Order of Succession falls to lunday, is G, which therefore becomes the Dominical Leter of the Year. A like Train of Things will also shift the Dominical Letter of the ensuing Year back by one Letter. nd throw it upon F. And this Revolution, were it allowed o run on without Interruption, would be determined in seven

But it so happens in the Julian Computation, that every 4th Year is a Leap-Year, confifting of 366 Days, which make 2 Weeks and 2 Days, and in this Case the Dominical Leter will be shifted back by two Letters, and fall the following Cear upon the next Letter fave one in a retrograde Order. Thus if the Dominical Letter at the Beginning of a Leap-Tear be A, it will not the following Year fall upon G as in he first Case, but by a double Retrogression, because of the wo odd Days, it is shifted back to F. And it is farther to e observed of these Leap-Years, that the same Dominical etter is not as in common Years, continued to the End of he Year, as might have been done, and the two odd Days affered then to effect the double Change; but it has been adged more convenient to change the Dominical Letter in the Aonth of February, when the intercalary Day is inserted. Whatever therefore is the Sunday Letter at the Beginning of Leap-Year, to continues till towards the End of February; ut then, by reason of the Intercalation, the 23d and 24th Days are denoted by the fame Letter, in which Case it is vident that the Dominical Letter must for the Remainder of nat Year go one Place back. If therefore the Dominical etter in the Beginning of the Year be A, after the 24th of February

February it will be G, and the Year following it is thrown

upon F, as we have already said.

You fee therefore that there is a twofold Change happens to the Dominical Letter, according to the Nature of the Year in which it takes place. Every common Year shifts it back by one Letter, and in every Fourth or Leap-Year there is a double Retrogression. All these Variations are compleated in 28 Years, after which the Dominical Letters return as before, and exhibit the same Series in a perpetual Train of Revolutions. If therefore a Table is made, representing the Dominical Letters for every Year in Order of this Cycle, it will also serve for all the lackeding Revolutions of the same. For what is the Dominical Letter for any one Year of this Cycle, is also the Dominical Letter of the same Year of the next Round thereof, and so on for ever. Hence it is easy with the Help of such a Table, to find the Dominical Letter for any Year, if you once know to what Year of the Solar Cycle, the given Year corresponds. Now to find the Year of the Solar Cycle answering to the given Year, proceed in the following Manner. The Year of our Lord's Nativity fell in with the tenth Year of the Solar Cycle, and therefore if to the given Year of the Christian Æra, you add 9, and divide the Sum by 28, the Quotient expresses the Number of Revolutions of the Cycle from the 9th Year before Christ, and the Remainder gives the Year of the Solar Cycle; but if nothing remains, then does the given Year answer to the 28th or last of this Cycle. As the Operation here is of the same Nature with that for finding the Golden Number, I hold it needless to illustrate it by a particular Example, and therefore shall here conclude my Remarks upon this Cycle, not doubting, but from what has been faid, you will be sufficiently able to comprehend it in all its Varieties and Changes.

It now only remains that I explain to you the Cycle of Indiction, which is a System of 15 Julian Years continually recurring, about whose Original Chronologers and Historians are greatly divided. The most general Opinion supposes it to have been instituted for the Sake of certain Tributes and Taxes, the Time of whose Payment was thereby made known to the Roman Subjects. What these Taxes were, on what Occasion they began, and why they were confined to a Cycle of 15 Years, is still Matter of Dispute among the Learned. We only know that they were in use after the Time of Constantine the Great, and that Justinian the Empero. commanded them to be inserted in all publick Instruments. Though the Taxes and Tributes that first gave Occasion to these Indictions.

dictions, have long fince ceased, yet they still continue to have a distinguished Place in the Calendar, because the Popes make use of them in their Bulls. For ever since Charlemaign invested the See of Rome with sovereign Power, the Pontiffs. who before made use of the Years of the Emperors, have chosen to date their Acts by the Year of the Indiction. At the Time of the Reformation of the Calendar, the Year 1582 was reckoned the tenth Year of the Indiction, whence by numbering back you will eafily find, that the first Year of this Cycle is connected with the 3d before Christ, so that by adding 3 to the given Year of Christ's Nativity, and dividing the Sum by 15, you will find the Tark of the Indiction in the same Manner as you did before that the Lunar and Solar Cycles. I have only one Observation more to make before I quit this Doctrine of Cycles, and it is this: That in the Language of Chronologers, the general Name of any Cycle is not only applied to the entire System of Years of which the Cycle confifts, but also to every Year of the said System. Thus the 14th Year, for Instance, of the Solar Period is denominated indifferently either the 14th Year of the Solar Cycle, or the 14th Solar Cycle. In the like Manner in the Lunar Revolutions; any Year, as the 5th, is called the 5th Year of the Lunar Cycle, or the 5th Lunar Cycle; and fo for the Indiction. This Remark was necessary here, in order to prevent any Confusion or Perplexity that might afterwards arise, from the promiscuous Use of these Terms in the Sequel of this Discourse.

P. I think I now pretty well understand the Nature and Formation of these Cycles; and therefore should be glad to be informed how they are applied, in the Composition of that general Standard of Epochas, which you some time ago made mention of.

G. That is what I am now to go upon; and in Order to proceed with the greater Clearnels, in a Matter of fuch Nicety and Importance, I must begin with observing, that in the Language of Chronologers, as a Round or Revolution of Years makes what they call a Cycle, so a Round or Revolution of Cycles makes what they call a Period. And as there are various and manifold Compositions of Cycles in this Science, so are there of course various and manifold Periods. But I shall here confine myself wholly to the Consideration of the Julian Period, it being the most important in all Chronology, and what, if well understood, will render every other Part of this Science easy and familiar to you. This Period,

as I have before hinted, is compounded of the three Cycles already explained; but to enable you the better to understand the Origin, Frame, and Usefulness of it, take the following Observations.

If we suppose the three Cycles of the Sun, Moon, and Indiction to begin together, in such manner, that the first Year of the Solar Cycle, be also the first Year of the Lunar Cycle. and the first of the Indiction; then as the Cycle of Indiction terminates in 15 Years, and must begin a-new, it is evident, that the 16th Year of this Series, will be the 16th Year of the Solar and Lunar Cycles, and the first Year of the second Indiction. Again, as the Lunar Cycle revolves into itself after 19 Years, if you advance to the 20th Year of the Series, you will have 20 for the Character of the Solar Cycle, 1 for that of the Lunar, and 5 for the Indiction. Proceeding on in this Manner, you will find every Year to exhibit different Cycles, and if you continue the Progression till such Time as Cycles return again in the fame Older as when you first set out, that is, till the first Year of these three several Cycles coincide and fall tegether, you will find that this cannot happen till after an Interval of 798c Years; for then, and not sooner, will the same Order of Cycles return, and begin a second Period of the like Kind with the former.

This System of Years, comprehending all the possible Changes of these Cycles, may also more readily be found by multiplying the three Cycles continually into one another, viz. 28, 10, and 15: For the Product thence arising must necessarily be the same with the aforesaid Period, as is well known to all who are acquainted with the Powers and Combinations of Numbers. What is particularly happy in the Conflitution of this Period, and arifes evidently from the Manner of generating it above described, is, that all the Years of it are distinguished by their peculiar Cycles; insomuch that no one Year of the whole Period has the same Cycles with any other Year thereof. For we have feen that the same Order of Cycles does not return till the Period is elapted, and a new one of the fame Kind begins. By this Means all the Years of this Period are accurately distinguished, so that if the Cycles are duly marked, it is impossible to mistake one for another. This 1500ph Scaliger observing, and how useful such a Measure of Time might be, if applied to the Purposes of Chronology, thought of adapting the Years of it to the Julian Form, making them begin from the first Day of January, and thence gave it the Name of the Julian Period. The Cycles of which it was composed, were also taken



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according to the Manner and Computation in use among the Latins; and as by their joint Confent, the first Year of the Christian Æra had 10 for the Character of the Solar Cycle, 2 for that of the Lunar, and 4 for the Indiction, which three Cycles correspond with no other Year of the Julian Period but the 4714th, he connected this very Year with the first of the vulgar Christian Æra, and thereby laid a Foundation for applying the whole Series of Time both before and after this great Event, to the other Years of his celebrated Period.

Having thus explained the Nature, Origin, and Properties of this universal Measure of Time, I shall now proceed to shew how we are to apply it for the universal Purposes of Chronology. And in the first Place let me observe, that it affords a general and easy Rule for the finding the Year of any of the three Cycles. For as the first Year of the Period is also the first Year of every Cycle in it, by dividing any Year thereof by the Numbers composing the Cycles, viz. 28, 19, and 15, the respective Quotients will shew the Number of the Cycles elapfed from the Beginning, and the Remainders will be the Years of the feveral Cycles, corresponding to the supposed Year of the Period. Thus if it was required to find the Characters of the three Cycles for the 6471st Year of this Period, which answers to the present Year of our Lord 1758. Divide 6,71, the given Year of the Julian Period, by 28 the Cycle of the Sun, and the Quotient gives the Number of Rounds of the Solar Cycle that have elapsed from the Beginning of the Period, and the Remainder is the prefent Year of the faid Cycle. In like Manner if you divide by q, the Quotient will express the Rounds of the Lunar Cycle, and the Remainder will be the Golden Number. The same Method of proceeding, if you divide by 15, will five for the Indiction. This Rule you fee is easy, and faves y 1 the Trouble of retaining particular Numbers in your Min. as in those already given. It is also universal, and will serve for the Years before Christ as well as after, when once you know how to refer them to the julian Period, as will be afterwards taught. Nor is this to be tooked upon as an inconfiderable Advantage, because by thus knowing how to find at any Time the Years of the Cycles, you can by the Help of the Calendar, and the other usual Tables, find the Dominical Letter, the New and Full Moons, with all the other Ecclefiaftical Calculations depending thereon.

But I now proceed to what is my chief Design in this Explication of the Julian Period, viz. the connecting it with

the several Epochas of History, that thereby we may be eaabled to compare them together, and view the whole Current of Time in a regular successive Course. We have already seen that the first Year of the Christian Æra coincides with the 4714th of this Period, and that therefore 4712 Years of it were elapsed when the Epocha of Christ's Nativity began. If therefore to any Year of our Lord's Natitivity, we add 4713, that will be the Year of the Julian Period, answering to the given Year of the Christian Æra. Now as the Year of our Lord's Nativity is universally known and in common Use, nothing can be easier than this Connection; and fince it is usual among Christians to refer all other Epochas to this, the Manner of reducing them to the universal Period is equally obvious. I would know for Instance in what Year of the Julian Period the Epocha of the Hegira begins. This is a celebrated Æra in use among the Mubometans and Arabs, which took its sile on Occasion of Mahamed's Flight from Mecca. The Turks make use of it in all their Computations of Time, and to give it the greater Weight, have affixed to the Word Hegira a peculiar Signification, making it imply an Act of Religion, whereby a Man forfakes his Country, and gives Way to the Violence of Persecutors, and Enemies of the Truth. Now the first Year of the Hegira coincides with the 622d of our Lord. Add this to 4713, and you have 5335, the Year of the Julian Period in which the Epocha of the Hegira begins. In like manner, if I would know in what Year of the Julian Period the Noman Conquest happened, this being an Epocha of great Note in England, to 1066 the Year of Christ answering to the said Conquest, I add 4713, and the Sum 5779 gives the Year required.

Thus you see that the reducing of the Years and Epochas after Christ's Nativity to the Julian Period, is extremely easy. Those which precede it cost a little more Time, and require great Accuracy of Calculation; it being necessary to ascertain the Year before Christ's Birth in which they begin, which often must be deduced from a long Train of Conclusions. However, the great Advantages of this Connection when once made, abundantly attones for the Trouble of it, as it proves ever after a sure and infallible Guide in these Matters. Besides, the Calculations are already made to our Hands in Books writ on purpose, so that we have only to apply to them. Knowing therefore the Year before Christ in which any Epocha begins, if you substract that from 4714.

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the Remainder will be the Year of the Julian Period, corresponding with the first of the said Epocha. And having once connected the Beginning of the Epocha, it will be easy to connect its subsequent Years, as there is nothing more required to it but a bare Addition of these Years. To illustrate this Matter by an Example. The Olympiads began in the 776th Year besore Christ, which substracted from 4714, leaves 3938 for the Year of the Julian Period. Again, Kome, according to the Chronology of Archbishop Usher, who founds his Computations upon the Authority of Falius Pictor, was built in the 7:8th Year before the Nativity of our Lord. Now 748 taken from 4714 as before leaves 3966, the Year of the Julian Period corresponding to that of the Foundation of Rome. In the same Manner may any other Epocha of former Ages be connected with this univerfil Standard of Computation; and the great Advantage of such a Reduction is this, that we can thereby compare the feveral Epochas together, and determine coincident Times, and the coeval Transactions of different Nations, which, as I said before, is bringing the whole Train of past Events into one connected Series, and exhibiting them to the Mind in a diffinct Order of Succession. For knowing by the foregoing Calculation, that the Olympieds began in the 3938th Year of the Julian Period, and that Rome was founded in the 3966th Year of the ame, I see that in the regular Course of Time, there is a Difference of about 28 Years between these two Epochas. When therefore I read in the History of Greece, that during he 112th and 113th Olympiads, Alexander was pushing his Conquests in Asia, and carrying his Victories even into the Heart of India; and learn likewise from the Roman Historia ins, that about the Year of the City 4:0, &c. Papirius Curor was subduing the Samnites, and laying the Foundations of he Roman Greatness: observing the Times here nearly to concide, and fall within about the same Years of the Julian Period; I thence gather, that at the very Time Alexander was stablishing the Macedonian Greatness in the East, an Empire was rising in the West, reserved by Providence to crush the Tyranny he was forcing upon Nations, at the Expence of fo nuch Blood and Treasure.

But besides the comparing of Epochas, and determining he coincident Times of Hittory; it is by the Julian Period lone, that different Chronologers, who proceed upon different Computations, can understand one another. Scaliger upposes the World to have been created in the 3050th Year effore Christ, and all his Calculations proceed upon this Hy-Vol. I.

pothesis, in which he is followed by most of the German Writers. Archbishop Usher on the other Hand, whose Authority is of great Weight, throws the Year of the Creation back to the 4004th before the Christian Æra; and other Chronologers proceed upon other Suppositions. If therefore they computed only by the Years from the Creation, we could never understand their Calculations, nor the Reason of the Differences between them, till we first knew how many Years every Author reckoned from the Creation to the Birth of Christ; which multiple Inquisition would often be attended with much Trouble and Uncertainty. But by annexing to the Years of the Creation, the corresponding Years of the Julian Period, all these Difficulties are removed, and the different Hypotheses upon which Chronologers proceed, lie in the most obvious Manner before us. Thus finding that Ufker refers the Creation of the World to the 710th Year of the Julian Period, and Scaliger to the 764th, I fee at once what different Suppositions they go upon, and in reading their Works, can

guide my Judgment accordingly.

I have only one Observation more to make upon the Advantages arifing from the Use of this Period, and it is this; that as with respect to past Transactions, it is thus a common Standard for comparing them together, and adjusting the different Suppositions about them; to in regard to those that are to come, it may be made an infallible Criterion, to determine without a Possibility of Error the Years in which they happen. This will evidently be the Cafe, if upon every remarkable Occurrence likely to make a Noise in future Ages, Chronologers take care to note the Character of the Cycles answering to the Year in which it falls out. hereby it will be fixed to one determinate Year of the Peried, in fech Manner, that no other Year in the whole can possibly belong to it. Nor is this to be effected a Matter of flight Confideration; inafmuch as the Want of fuch a Method of afcertaining of Time, has left us uncertain as to the true Year in which the City of Constantinople was taken by the Turks. One should think indeed, that so important a Revolution would have made too great a Noise in the World, to fuffer any the least Circumstance relating to it to pass unobserved; and yet we find, that while some place it in the Year of our Lord 1452, others strenuously contend, that it happened not till the Year after. Now had the Julian Period been known in those Days, Chronologers, by recording the Characters of the Cycles, would have fo truly determined the Year, that no Dispute of this Kind could have arisen.

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For the Characters being given, the Year answering to these Characters may eafily be found by the following Rule. tiply the Character or Year of the Solar Cycle into 4845, that of the Lunar into 4200, and the Year of the Indiction into 6916. Add all these Products into one Sum, which divided by 798c, the Number of the Julian Period, and the Remainder, neglecting the Quotient, will be the Year you feek for. I know for Instance, that the Year in which our Lord was born, was the 10th of the Solar Cycle, the 2d of the Lunar, and the 4th of the Indiction, and would thence find the Year of the Julian Period answering thereto. In order to this, according to the foregoing Instructions, I multiply 10, the Character of the Solar Cycle, into 4845, and the Product thence arifing is 48450. Again, I multiply 2 the Lunar Cycle into 4200, and find the Product to be 8400. Lastly, I multiply 4 the Year of the Indiction into 6916, and obtain 27664 for the Product. All these Products added together make 84514; and this Sum divided by 7980, gives 10 for the Quotient, with the Remainder of 4714. The Quotient, as I said before, is not considered in the present Question; but the Remainder expresses the Year of the Julian Period required: and that 4714 is the Year thereof answering to the Year of Christ's Nativity, we have seen above. For a second Example; the Year 1754 has 27 for the Character of the Solar Cycle, 7 for that of the Lunar, and 2 for the Indiction; to find thence the Year of the Julian Period. First 27, the Solar Cycle, multiplied into 4845, gives 124815. Again, 7 the Lunar Cycle, multiplied into 4200, gives 29400. Lastly, by multiplying 2, the Year of Indiction, into 69.6, we have 13832. Add all these Products into one Sum, and they make 174047. Divide this by 7980, and after the Division is finished, we have 6467 for a Remainder, which is the Year of the Julian Period answering to the present Year of the Christian Æra, as may be readily demonstrated, by adding 4713 to 1754, the Year of our Lord, according to the Directions given for that Purpose in a former Paragraph.

What I have faid will, I believe, ferve to give you a sufficient Knowledge of this elebrated Period, at least as far as common Use requires. The Numbers into which in the foregoing Question you multiply the Cycles, are founded upon Calculations too subtile and refined for you, as yet, to be able to trace them. But these and other Mysteries of the Science will unfold themselves gradually, in Proportion as you advance in a Course of Study. There is one Thing

however worth while to attend to, that this Period when traced to its Beginning, runs several hundred Years beyond the Creation. Scaliger when he first invented it, might easily have accommodated its Years to the Years of the World. He had only to apply its first Year to the Year of the Creation, and then computing the Cycles downward, shew what Years of these Cycles correspond to the Year when he introduced it. But such a Method would have had this Inconvenience attending it, that the Cycles of his Period, would not have been the same with the Cycles then in use. therefore thought it better to take the Cycles as he then found them settled in the Calendar of the Latin Church, and tracing them backward thro' their feveral Combinations, to the Year in which they all began together, there fixed the Beginning of his Computation, which was by this Means carried up several hundred Years beyond the Creation of the World. Now this Method is not only best suited to Practice and common Use, as the Cycles of the Period are the same with those of the Calendar, but it has also this Advantage; that thereby we can with greater Ease adjust the different Opinions of Chronologers. For almost all of them proceeding upon different Systems, and varying in their Account of the Years between the Creation and the Birth of Christ; it so happens that most of these Computations, especially such as are in use among the Western Christians, fall within the Years of the Julian Period; so that by reducing them to it, we have (as was before shewn) an easy Way of comparing them together, and adjusting them one to another.

P. I suppose, now that you have explained the Julian Period, and conducted me thro all the several Measures of Time, you will next, according to the Plan laid down at your first setting out, shew how this Chronological Knowledge may be

most usefully applied to the Purposes of History.

G. It is indeed necessary that you should have some general Knowledge of the Succession of Ages, and the most remarkable Transactions that have happened in the World; and these, is laid before you in a just and orderly Manner, will serve to conduct you thro' all the Labyrinths of History. You may remember I told you, that Chronology was fitly divided into two Branches; one comprehending the several Divisions and Periods by which Time is measured, and the other treating of the various Epochas to which different Nations refer in their Computations. It is the second of these that now falls under our Consideration; and as I have already explained that general Measure of Time, to which as a Standard

dard all other Æras may be referred, I shall take care in tracing out the particular Epochas, to annex the Years of the Julian Period, in order to give you a distinct View of the Succession of Time, and enable you to compare this general Draught with fuch other Computations as may afterwards fall in your Way. If we consider Time as running forward in a continued Train of several thousand Years from the Creation of the World to the Birth of Christ, and were to take an Account of the History of Mankind during that long Interval; it is evident that our narrow Minds are by no means able to comprehend distinctly the Transactions of so many Ages, or view them in a due Order of Succession, unless we begin by dividing this large Period into several lesser Spaces and Intervals. For the Occurrences that happen within each of these will be then more easily retained, and may be afterwards united by the Mind into one general Plan. Such a Division as that I am speaking of, does the Consideration of Epochas afford. For they being certain fixed Points of Time, distinguished by some memorable Event, the Mind confiders them as convenient Resting-places, from whence to take a View of whatever has fallen out remarkable before or fince. Now the Epochas of ancient History being all removed from one another by a greater or lesser Term of Years, the feveral intervening Periods may be very naturally confidered as so many Subdivisions of the general Course of Time. It should therefore be the first Care of one who applies to the Study of History, to get a distinct Notion of these Intervals. that is, of the Spaces of Time between Epocha and Epocha, and at the same Time to acquaint himself with the most remarkable Transactions that have happened during every Period in Order. For thus he presents the Mind at once with a general Plan of the whole Body of ancient History, and difpoling past Events in a regular Series, by this means avoids Perplexity and Confusion.

P. I understand you. As in studying the Geography of any Nation or Kingdom, we first get acquainted with its general Regions, and then fixing upon some remarkable Cities in each of these, dispose of the other Towns round them, every one according to its Distance, that the Mind by proceeding thus from Province to Province, may take a progressive View of the whole Country, and comprehend it in all its Parts: Such must be the Method of History. We must divide it into certain Parts and Intervals, each beginning with some memorable Occurrence; and then getting acquainted with the most remarkable Transactions of every Period, dispose

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pose of the other Events before or after them, according as

they fall out in the Train of the History.

G. It is so; and in order to avoid Consussion, it is necesfary at first to confine ourselves to a moderate Number of Divisions, which when well digested, may be afterwards subdivided into what leffer Periods we pleafe. As it is my Defign to lay before you a short View of ancient History from the Creation of the World to the Birth of Christ, and to proceed in it according to the Plan laid down above, I shall divide that whole Interval into ten Parts. The first takes in the Duration of the old World; or from the Creation to the Deluge, which includes one thousand fix hundred and fitty-fix Years. The second reaches from the Deluge to the Vocation of Abraham, and takes in four hundred and twenty-fix Years. The third from the Vocation of Abraham to the Departure of the Children of Ifrael out of $E_{S}(t)$, comprehends four hundred and thirty Years. The fourth from the Departure out of Egytt to the Deftruction of Tree, includes three hundred and eight Years. The fourth from the Defiruction of Trey to the Javing the Foundations of the Temple under Sil-Irren, takes in an hundred and teventy-two Years. The finth from the Foundations of the Temple to the Building of Rome, includes two hundred and fifty-eight Years. The seventh from the Building of Rem to Cyrus, comprehends two hundred and eight Years. The eighth from Cyrus to the Overthrow of the Ferlian Empire by Alexander the Great, contains two handed and fix Years. The ninth from the Fall of the Perfan Empire to the Defeat of Perfans, when Rome became the Miffrels of the World, takes in an hundred and fixty-two Years. The tenth and laft, from the Destruction of the Kingdom of Macralus under Perfers, to the Beginning of the Challian Arra, includes about an hundred and fixty-eight Years. You fee that each of these Divisions begins with fome celebrated Epocha. I shall go through them one after another, and not only give an Abstract of the Hiftory of each, but also as I proceed, take notice of such other 7 res as have been of principal Note in ancient Times. This will give you an exact View of the Succession of Ages, acand myou to range Events according to the regular Train of cheir Years, and prefent you with what one may call a general M p of ancient History. After this you may apply to any personal r Part of it with Advantage. The great Empires will lie open before you. Facts may be traced in all their Confequences; and the whole Chain of human Atlairs, with its various Connections and Dependencies, be purfited with Eafe and Pleafure.

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P. Begin therefore, for the Prospect is so sair and inviting, that you are not to wonder if I discover some Impatience to

be farther engaged in so agreeable a Scene.

G. The first Epocha opens with a Display of Almighty Power. God creates the World out of nothing, and pours upon it a Profusion of Ornaments, that it may be an agreeable Habitation for Man, who stands in the first Rank of Beings here below. This great Event is placed by Archbishop Usher, whose Chronology we chuse to follow, in the 710th Year of the Julian Period, and the 4004th before Chrift. Here Moles the great Lawgiver of the Tews begins his History, and prefents us with the original Pairit a State of Innocence and Perfection, adorned with the Image of their Maker, and exercifing Dominion over the Creatures. This is the Period fo much celebrated by the Poets under the Name of the Golden Age. But alas! it was of short Continuance. Eve seduced, and Adam joining in the Offence, experience a fatal Reverse of Fortune, and are forced to quit the delightful Abode of Paradife.

The Earth begins to be peopled, and the Cor- Years of the Worl1. ruption of human Nature discovers itself. murdered by his Brother Cain, but Punishment 130. follows close upon the Offence. We see the Criminal suffering under the Reproaches of his own Conscience, and retiring from the Commerce of Men, whose Hatred he had justly incurred. By him the first City is built, and among his Posterity we meet with the first Beginnings of Aits. Here we see at the same Time the Tyrann: of the human Passions, and the prodigious Malignity of the Heart of Man. The Posterity of Seth withstand the general Torrent, and continue faithful to God. Enoch is miraculously taken up into Heaven as a Reward for his upright walking with his Maker. The Posterity of Seth intermarrying with the Descendants of Cain, or in the Language of Scripture, the Sons of God going in unto the Daughters of Men, an universal Corruption enfued. God, no longer able to bear with the Wickedness of Men, resolves upon their Destruction, and makes known his Purpole by the Mouth of his 1536. Servant wouh; but they continuing hardened in their Iniquities, the Earth is covered with a Deluge of Water, and all Mankind cut off, Neab and his Family ex-This happened in the 1656th Year of the World, and the 2366th of the Julian Period. It IE 56. is worth observing, that as the Deluge was uni-

B b 4

verfal,

verfal, so the Tradition of it has obtained amongst all Nations. Nothing is more celebrated in the Writings of the Poets, nor can any Event et equal Antiquity boast of o many concurring Testimonics to support it. Not that hered History derives any additional Strength from such foreign Recommendations; but the Mind is pleased to see Truths in which it takes a real Interest, confirmed by the Annals of Nations who had not any such Motives to engage their Belief of them.

P. Here, and remember, ends your first Period of ancient History. And indeed the Deluge very naturally offers a new Epicha. The repeopling of Nations after to general a Destruction looks like a second World rising out of the Ruins of the former. Proceed therefore, and give me some Account

of the Affairs of this new People.

Years of the World. 2. Epocha. The Deluge. 1656. G. To the Times following after the Deluge we must refer some considerable Changes in the ordinary Course of Nature. So universal a Shock doubtless caused great Alterations in the Atmosphere, which now took a Form not so friendly to the Frame and Texture of the human Bedy.

Hence the Abridgment of the Life of Man, and that termidable Train of Difeases which have ever fince made such Havock in the World. The Memory of the three Sons of Neah, the first Founders of Nations, has, we find, been preserved among the several People descended from them. Fiftet, who peopled the greatest Part of the West, continued long samous under the celebrated Name of Japens. Ham was revered as a God by the Egyptians under the Title of Japens. And the Memory of the has ever been

held in Honour among the Marretts his Detecndants. The first consideral te Dispersion of Mankind was occasioned by the Confusion of Lan-

guages, sent am ny them by God, upon their engaging in a vain Attempt of building a Tower, whose Top might reach to Heaven. As the Far h, after the Deluge, was over-run with Woods, which became the Haunts of wild Beatls, the great Heroism of those Times confided in cleaning the Cround, and extirpating these Savage Monsters, that held Mighland under continual Alarms, and hindered them from enlarging their Habitations. Nimeal acquiring great Reputation in this Way, is thence called by Aloses a mighty Hunter before the Lord. As his Enterprizes of this Rind from made him considerable, and naturally tended to rouze Ambition in the Heart of Man, we find him aiming at Demainion over his Fellow-creatures, and Alablishing

his Authority upon Conquest. Such was the first Beginning of Kingdoms. Nimred founded his at Babylon, where the vain Attempt to build the famous ower had been made. Much about the fame Time the Foundations of Nineveh were laid, and feveral other ancient Kingdoms established. They were but of small Extent in their first Beginning, as is easy to suppose. In Egypt alone we meet with four Dynasties or Principalities; Thebes, Thin, Memphis, and Tanis. To this Age also we may refer the Origin of the Egyptic was and Policy. Already they began to distinguish themselves in the Astronomical and the Egyptic was and Policy. cal Knowledge, which was also cultivated with no less Ardour among the Chaldeans; for so far back did their Observations of the heavenly Bodies reach, according to the Accounts fent from Babylon to Aristotle by Calisthenes the Philosopher. You will readily suppose that if the speculative Sciences began by this Time to be cultivated, those practical Arts that tend to the Ease and Accommodations of human Life would not lie neglected. Neab had doubtless preserved all the Inventions of the old World; but as the Face of Nature was confiderably altered by the Deluge, new Contrivances must be adapted to their present Circumstances. Hence Agriculture, Architecture, and the Art of polishing Mankind, are found to have flourished very early in the Western Parts of the World, where Noah and his Descendents first settled. In proportion as we remove from them, we meet with nothing but Barbarity and a savage Wildness. Even Greece itself, which led the Way in Arts and Sciences to the other European Nations, was wholly unacquainted with the most necessary Concerns of human Life, till Strangers arriving from the Eastern Countries, brought along with them the Knowledge of those more improved Nations. But the Arts and Sciences thus flourished in the East, the Knowledge of the true God feems to have decayed very early. Tradition introduced many abfurd Notions into Religion, and made Way for those gross Ideas of the Deity that soon overspread the World. The Number of false Divinities multiplied exceedingly; and this was what gave Occasion to the Vocation of Abraham. Years of the

This happened about four hundred and twentyfix Years after the Deluge, and in the 2793d Year of the Julian Period. For then it was, that the feveral Nations of the Earth walking after their own Ways, and forgetting him that made them; God, to hinder in some measure the Progress of this universal Depravation, resulved to separate for

3. Etocha. The Vocation of Abrabam. 2083.

Warld.

himself a chosen People. Abraham was called to be the Father : Father of this diffinguished Race. God appeared to him in the Land of Change, where he purposed to establish his Worship, and the Posterity of that eminent Patriarch, whom he premised to multiply as the Stars of Heaven, and the Sand upon the Sea-thore. It is remarkable of this Father of

the chosen Nation, that though abcumding in Wealth, and possented of a Power which had proved an Overmatch for that of several Kings united, he yet adhered to the Manners of ancient Times, and contented with the Simplicity of a passoral Life, discovered his Magnificence no otherwise, than by the most unbounded and extensive Hospitality. It was in his Time that

2148. Inachus, the most ancient of all the Kings mentioned in the History of Greece, founded the Kingdom of Argas. After Abraham, we read of Islan his Son, and Jacob his Grandson, who no less diffinguished themselves by a Simplicity of Manners and fleady Faith in God. Nor did they miss of the Reward due to their Piety. The same Promises were renewed to them, and they equally experienced the Favour and Proceedion of Heaven. Islan bested Jacob to the Prejudice of his older Brother Esta, and tho

deceived in Appearance, only fulfilled the Council of God. I had is also mentioned in Scripture by the Name of Edm, and was the Father of the Identity, of no finall N to an Interp. To Junk were no nother twelve Patriarchs. Fathers of the twelve Tribes of I had. Among them happened holds a diffluentiated Plane. The Fram of Academis by which he became in a laminet to the King of I put, plainly speaks the immediate Interpation of King of I put, plainly speaks the immediate Interpation of Promise make the laminet in the Roman of the Promise make the laminet in the Country, and we are to King to contribe Name of Planeth. The allowed to King to the Name of Planeth. The allowed to King to the Name of Planeth. The allowed to king the Colling his Colling to the Parent Colling the Parent States.

2315. Children to more that eclemated probaticle Declaration or the ratio state of their Poflerity, in which he was calative or wered to Falke the Time of the Astronomy and hat he was to inhe from his Leins. The ramily of this Patriach became in a fact Time a great People, Informach that the Jedouty of the Top their being round by to amazing an increase, they began to lay them

2433. A length God fends
2433. A length God fends
Via ers of the World, delivers him from the
Hands of Harust's Daughter, who educates him as her own

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Son, and instructs him in all the Learning of the Egyptians About this Time the People of Egypt fent out Colonies into feveral Parts of Grecce. That of Cecrops founded twelve Cities or rather Villages in Attica, of which was composed the Kingdom of Athens, where the Egyptian Laws and Religion were introduced by the Founder. Not long after happened that famous Flood in Theffaly under Deucalism, which the Greek Poets have confounded with the universal Deluge. Hellen, a Son of this Deucalion, reigned afterwards in Theffaly, and gave his Name to Greece. Much about the same Time, Cadmus the Son of Agenor came with a Colony of Phanicians into Baotia, and founded the ancient City of Thebes. * Moses in the mean time advanced in Years, and being driven from the Court of Pharash, because he opposed the Persecution of his Brethren, fled into Arabia, where he fed the Flocks of his Father-in-law Jethro forty Years. It was here that he saw the Vision of the burning Buth, and heard the Voice of God calling to him to go and deliver his Brethren from the Slavery of Egypt. He obeyed the Divine Admonition, and wrought all those Wonders in the Court of Pharaoh, of which we have so full an Account in Holy Writ. And this brings us to the 4th **Period** of our Hiftory.

P. Let me interrupt you here a Moment, now that we are got among the Egyptians, who feem by this Time to have been a powerful People. I have heard much of their wife Constitutions, their great Knowledge in the Sciences, their Pyramids, Obelisks, Temples, a d other illustrious Monuments of Wealth and Grandeur. Were they arrived at this Degree of Eminence among Mankind, in the Age we are

fpeaking of?

G. In a great measure they were. It is said of Moses by Way of Commendation, that he was instructed in all the Learning of the Egyptians. You have seen them sending abroad Colonies, civilizing barbarous Nations, and introducing among them the Constitutions of a just Policy. These are Proofs sufficient both of their Power and Wisdom. Many of their amazing Works, as the Labyrinth, the Lake of Maris, &c. are indeed of later Date, yet it is certain that the Pyramids were built before the Times we are speaking of. Nor is the Opinion of some learned Men, that the Israelites during their Oppression were employed in this Service, altogether without Foundation; more especially when we consider the Nature of the Slavery under which they groaned, which

which evidently refers to the carrying on of some considerable

Defigns in Architecture. But to return to our Hillory.

Tears of the World.

Lepocha.

The Departure out of Egypt.

2513.

In the 850th Year after the Deluge, the 430th from the Vocation of Abrah. m, and the 3223d of the Julian Period, Mosses led the Children of Israel out of Egypt, and received the Law from God himself upon Mount Sinai. In his Progress thro' the Wilderness to the Land of Canaan, he instituted by God's Appointment and Direction, the whole Tabernacle Service. We find him also establishing a Form

Tabernacle Service. We find him also establishing a Form of Civil Government among the Tribes, in the framing of which he was affisted by the Counsel of his Father-in-law Jethro. During these Transactions in the Wilderness, the Egyptians continued sending out Colonies into divers Nations, particularly Greece, where Danaus sound

2530. Means to get Pollession of the Throne of Args, driving out the ancient Kings descended of Ina-

2553. chus. Upon the Death of Moses, Joshua succeeded, who began and nearly compleated the Con-

quest of Canaan. After him we meet with a Succession of Judges. Unhappily the Israelites, after the Death of the Elders that knew Jestua, forgot the God of their Fathers, and were seduced into the Idolatry of the bordering Nations. This drew down heavy Chastisfements from above, and they were sold into the Hands of cruel Oppressors. But when in their Distress they called upon God, he sailed not from Time to

Time to raise up a Deliverer. Thus Othmiel put

an End to the Tyranny of Cushan King of Mesopotamia, and 80 Years after Ehud delivered them
 from the Oppression of Eslan King of Meab.

Much about this Time Peiops the Phrygian, the Son of Tantalus, reigned in Peletronefus, and gave his Name to that famous Peninsula. Bel or Belus, King of the Chaldeans, received from his People Divine Honours. The Jeur enslaved or victorious, according as they honoured or forsok their God, experience many Vicissitudes of Fortune, as may be seen in the Historics of Deborah and Barak, of Gueon, Abinelech, Jephthah, &c. This Age is considerable for many great Revolutions among the Heathen Nations. For according to the Computation of Herodotus, who seems the most exact and

worthy of Credit, we are here to fix the Foundation of the Affirian Empire under Ninus the Son of Belus, 520 Years before the Building of Rome, and in the Time of Debarah the Prophetes. He established the Seat of it at Nineveh, that ancient City already famous



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over all the East, but now greatly beautified and enlarged by him. They who allow 1300 Years to the first Assirance Empire, run up nearly to the Times of Nimrod, founding their Supposition upon the Antiquity of the City. But Herodotus, who gives it only 520 Years, speaks of its Duration from Ninus, under whom the Assyrians extended their Conquests over all the Upper Asia. Under this Conqueror we are to place the Founding, or rather Rebuilding, of the ancient City of Tyre, which afterwards became so famous by its Navigation and Colonics. Here too, or very foon after, probably in the Time of Abimelech, come in the famous Exploits of Hercules the Son of Amphitryon, and of Thefeus King of Athens. This last united the Twelve Districts of Attica into one large City, and gave a better Form to the Athenian Government. In the Reign of Semiramis so famous for her Conquests and magnificent Works, and while Jephthah judged Ifrael, Troy, which had been already once taken by the Greeks in the Time of La medon, was a second time taken and reduced to Ashes by the same Greeks, in that of Priam the Son of Laomedon, after a Siege of ten Years.

This Epocha of the Destruction of Troy, Years of the World. which happened about 308 Years after the Departure out of Egypt, and in the 3530th Year of 5. Epocha. the Julian Period, is confiderable, not only on The taking of Account of the Greatness of the Event, celebra-Troy. ted by so many famous Poets both Greek and Latin, 2820. but also because it furnishes a proper Date, in taking Account of the fabulous and heroic Times. These Ages of Fiction and Romance, where the Poets place their Heroes the Offspring of the Gods, are not very remote from the Æra we are speaking of. For in the Time of Lacmedon the Father of Priam, appeared all the Worthies concerned in the Expedition of the Golden Fleece, Jason, Hercules, Orpheus, Castor, Pollux, &c. and even in the Age of Priam himself, we see Achilles, Agamemnon, Merclaus, Hector, Ulyffes, Diomedes, Sarpedon the Son of fupiter, Aneas the Son of Venus, whom the Romans acknowledged for their Father and Founder, with many others, the Boast of Nations, and the Pride of the most renowned Families. Round this Epocha therefore we may gather what is most illustrious and great in the heroic Times. But the Transactions of Holy Writ during this Period, are yet more aftonishing. The prodigious Strength of Samson and his amazing Exploits, the Administration of Eli, Samuel the chosen Prophet of God, Saul the first King of Israel, his Victories, Presumption, and unhappy Fall, are Events that

may well raise our Wonder and Admiration. About this Time Codrus King of Athens, devoted himself to Death for the Sasety of his Country. His Sons Medon and Nileus disputed about the Saccession, whereupon the Athenians abolished the Regal Power, and created perpetual Governors, or Magistrates for Life, but answerable for their Conduct, who were diffinguished by the Name of Archons. Medon the Son of Codrus was the first who exercised that Office, and it continued a long Time in his Family. To this Age we must also refer the Settlement of several Athenian Colonies in that Part of Asa Minor called Ionia. The Asian Colonies settled there much about the same Time, and all Asia Minor was covered with Greek Cities. In

2949. the Kingdom of Israel, Saul was faceceded by Dateld, who at fifth was acknowledged as King by the House of Jalah only; but upon the Death of Israelath, all the Tribes owned his Authority. He proved a variant and fortunate Prince, greatly enlarged his Dominions, and advanced the Israelates to a Degree of Wealth and Power, far exceeding any thing they had known before. But what is field more, he was the diffingenfield Favourite of Heaven, and is field in Scripture a Man accepting to God's own Heart. To this pious Warrier acceeded 8 to a standard for his Witdom, Juffice, and pacific Virtues, whose Hanks, unpolluted with Blood, were declared worthy to raise a Temple to the Most High.

Y.ars of the World.

6. Eparta.

The Temple.

It was in the 3702d Year of the Julian Period, the 487th after the Departure out of Egypt, and, to connect forced History with pretance 72 Years after the taking of Tris, and 250 before the Building of Reme, that Selim n had the Foundations of the Temple. The other Entirelies of his Reign

2992: of the Temple. The other furticulars of his Reign are fully recorded in Holy Writ, where he agrees at once an Inflance of all that is great and liste in human Nature. Under his Son feel 2000 of Fract was parted into two

3020. Kingdoms; one colled by the way of Diametion the Kingdom of Ifiael, and counting of the ten Tribes who affociated under fordown; the other known by the Name of the Kingdom of finaels, complete of fuch as edhered to the House of David. The Kings of Egypt seem at this Time to have been very powerful, and many are of Opinion, that the Shifhail of Scriptuce, whom God made use of to punish the Impietics of Rehelsam, is the same with

that famous Conqueror to renowned in profane Hillory under the Name of Seightris. In the Reign of Acials the Son of Relations, we fee the



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the Piety of that Prince rewarded with a memorable Victory over the revolted Tribes. In the Time of Aja his Son and Successor, Omri King of Ifrael built Samaria, which thenceforth became the Capital of that King- 3080.

dom. Next follow the pious Reign of Jehofo-

phat in Judah, and the Idolarry and Impieties of Akab and Jezebel in Israel, with the fignal Vengeance of Heaven for the Blood of Naboth. About this Time we are to place the Foundation of Cartkage by Dido, who transported a Colony of Tyrians into Africa, chose a Place for her new City conveniently situated for Traffick. The Mixture of Tyrians and Africans contributed to the making it both a wavike and a trading City, as will appear in the Sequel. Judah and Israel were in the mean time the Scene of amazing Revolutions and Wonders. Jehorom by marrying the Daughter of Abab, was seduced into the Idolatry of that wicked Family, and drew down upon himself the Vengeance of Heaven. Jehn takes Possessing of the Throne of Israel, and de-

stroys the whole Posterity of Ahab. Jehoram 3120. King of Julah, and Ahaziah his Son, with the

greatest Part of the Royal Family, are all slain about the fame Time, as Allies and Friends of the House of Ahab. Athaliab, upon hearing this News, refolves utterly to extinguish the House of David, and putting to Death all that remained of that Family, even to her own Children, usurps the Crown of Judah. But Jossh preserved by the Care of Teloshokah his Aunt, and brought up privately in the Temple by Jehninda the High-priest, after six Years puts an End to the Usurpation and Lite of Athaliah. During all this Time, Elijah and Elilha were working those Wonders and diracles in Ifrael, which have made their Names to famous in Holy Writ. Let us now look abroad a little into profane Hiftory, which begins to furnish more ample Materials, and entertain us with the gradual Rife of those Grecian Commonwealths, that made fo great a Figure in ancient Times. For during the Period we are frealing of, according to the most received Opinion, flourished Integus the famous Spartan Lawgiver. The Bounds I have preferred myfelf in this Discourse, will not allow of my laying before you a Scheme of those admirable Institutions, which rendered Lacedemen the most powerful and illustrious City of Grave. You can read them at large in the Hiftories of those Times. I shall only observe, that, that as it was the chief Aim of this Lawgiver to tanish Luxury and Avarice, and introduce a warlike Spirit among the People; nothing could be more happily contrived

for this Purpose, than his equal Distribution of the Lands of the Commonwealth, his Prohibition of all Gold and Silver Coin, and that laborious temperate Kind of Life habituated to the Exercises of War, in which every Citizen was trained up from his Infancy. In a Word, it is Commendation enough to fay, that while Sparta adhered to the Ethablithments of Lycurgus, she was invincible in herself, and respected by all the World. Some time before Lycurgus, flourished Homer and Hefiod, the two renowned Grecian Poets. We fee in their Works the amiable Simplicity of those ancient Times; and though Hiltory has left us very much in the Dark, as to the carly Ages they describe, yet it is abundantly plain from their Writings, that the Greeks were by this Time a powerful People, and had made confiderable Advances in all the different Branches of human Learning. In Judah, Feast during the Life of Jehoia la, ruled the People with Wildom and Justice; but after the Death of that great Man, he be-

came a very Tyrant, infomuch that he ordered 3164. Zechariah the High-priest, the Son of his Benefactor, to be stoned to Death. But Heaven did not long deser Vengeance for this Act of Persidy and Ingratitude. The Year following being heaten by the Syrians, he sell into Contempt, and was slain by his own Servants. Anaziah his Son succeeded him in the Throne. Mean while the Kingdom of Isiael, which had been greatly weakened under the Successors of Jehu, by its almost continual Wars with the

Kings of Damafins, began to recover and flourish by the wife and vigorous administration of Jers-

boam the fecond, who exceeded in Piety and Valour all that had gone beare him. Nor did

3194. Uzziah or azariah the Son of Amaziah acquire leis Glory in Judah. In the 34th Year of his 3228. Reign begins the famous Computation by the

Olympiads, of which we have already spoken in our Chronology. It is celebrated in History, not only as being the great Epocha of the Greeks; but also, because here, according to Varro, the tabelous Times end. They are so named on account of the many Fables which the Poets have interwoven with the Transactions they describe, infomuch that it is almost impossible to distinguish Truth from Falsehood.

P. Now that you speak of Varre and his Distribution of Time, I should be glad you would give me some Account of it; because I remember to have seen it several times re-

bances

ferred to, and was at a Lofs, as not well knowing what it meant.

G. Varro divided the whole Series of Time into three Periods. The first extended from the Creation of the World to the Deluge, and is by him called the unknown Age, there being nothing in profane Historians relating to that Time, which has any Appearance of Truth. The fecond Period reached from the Deluge to the first Olympiad, and this is what he stiled the fabulous, for the Reasons mentioned above. The third and last, beginning with the first Olympiad, was carried down to the Age in which that Author wrote, and may by us be extended to the present Times. He calls it the historical Period, because henceforward the Transactions of Mankind are handed down to us by faithful and authentic Relations; so that the Olympiads, while they constitute the great Epocha of the Greeks, are at the fame time to be confidered as the Æra of true History. However, this holds only in respect of the Transactions of the Heathen World. inasmuch as holy Writ surnishes a true and authentic Relation of the Affairs of the chosen People, from the Times of Abraham the Father and Founder of the Jewish Nation; and has even traced Things back in a general Summary, to the first Formation of the Universe. By this means I have been enabled to lay before you a just Account of the Progress of human Affairs; and deducing History from its Source, have preserved the Chain of Ages unbroken, and disposed of the scattered Fragments of profane History, according to the true Places they ought to possess in the general Course of Sacred History is very foon going to leave us; but we may esteem it a Happiness, that having conducted us with Certainty thus far, we are arrived at a Period where the Relations of other Writers may be depended on. Thus the Thread of History is continued, we see Ages succeeding one another in a connected Series, we can pursue the Affairs of Mankind in a just and orderly Progression, from their first Original, to the Times in which we live. But to return whence we digressed. Azariah was succeeded in the Kingdom of Judah by his Son Jotham, who proved a wife and pious Prince. Ifrael mean while was torn with intestine Di-Shallum had flain Zachariah the Son of Jereboam, and usurped the Crown; which inspiring Menalem with Hopes of gratifying his Ambition by the like Means, he conspired against the Usurper, and served him as he had done his lawful Prince. Pul was at this Time King of Affyria, who taking Advantage of these Distur-

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bances in Israel, advanced against it with an Army. But Menahem found means to fatisfy him by a Present of a thoufand Talents. Archbishop Usher conjectures this Pul to have been the Father of Sardanapalus, imagining that Name to imply as much as Sardan the Son of Pul. It was in the Reign of this Surdanapalus that the Athenians, whose Dispofition was pushing them on insensibly to a popular Government, upon the Death of Alemaon the last of their perpetual Archons, retrenched the Power of these Magistrates, and limited their Administration to ten Years. Charaps was the first who held this Dignity under these Restrictions. But we must now turn our Eves towards Itay, and take a View of the first Beginnings of that Empire, which is in time to swallow up all the rest, and spread its Victories to the remotest Regions of the known World. After the Destruction of Troy, Enea: gathering together the few Remains of his unhappy Countrymen, failed for Italy; where marrying the Daughter of King Latinus, he succeeded him in the Throne, and left it to his Posterity. This Race of Latin Kings held the Sovereignty for upwards of three hundred Years; nor do we read of any remarkable Revolution till the Time of Numitor

and Amilius. But then Amilius seizing upon the Crown to the Prejudice of his elder Brother Numiter, remained possessing ed of it till Romulus and Remus the Sons of Ilia, Numiter's Daughter, arriving at Manhood, restored their Grandsather to

his Inheritance, and flew the Usurper-Years of the B'urid. 7. Efsita. The Building e Rome.

3250.

lian Period.

Judah. Historians are not agreed as to the precise Year of this Event. The Computation of Archbishop Usher, founded on the Authority of Fabius Pictor, places it a little before the Beginning of the eighth Olympiad, in the 3966 Year of the Ju-This I take it was the true Year of the Foundation But as Varro's Account is now almost univerfally followed; to prevent a Disagreement between this Track, and those other Histories that are most likely to fall in your Way, I shall proceed upon his Hypothelis, which fixes it to the 3d Year of the 6th Olympiad, that is, in the 396cth Year of the Julian Period, 430 Years after the Dettruction of Troy, and 753 before the Beginning of the Christian Æra. mans (according to Plutarch and others,) began to build on the 21th of April. This Day was then confecrated to Paks, Goddels of Shepherds, so that the Festival of Pales, and that of the Foundation of the City, were afterwards jointly cele-

This Revolution was followed foon after by the

Building of Rome in the Reign of Jotham King of

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brated at Rome on the same Day. This Æra so remarkable in History, as serving the best of any to direct us in regulating our Accounts of the Western and European Nations, is removed but a few Years from another of no less Note in the Eaftern Chronology. For about fix Years after the building of Rome, according to the Computation of Varro, happened the Downfal of the Allyrian Monarchy, occasioned chiefly by the Effeminacy of Saralmapalus. This Prince neglecting wholly the Administration of public Affairs, and shutting himself up in his Palace amongst his Women and Eunuchs. fell into Contempt with his Subjects; whereupon Arbaces Governor of Media, and Belefis Governor of Babylon, conspiring against him, besieged him in his Capital, and reduced him at last to the Necessity of perishing miserably with his Wives and Eunuchs in the Flames of his own Palace. Upon the Diffolution of this mighty Empire, there arose two others in its Stead, founded by the two Leaders of the Conspiracy. Belefis had Bubylon, Chalaea, and Arabia; and Arbaces all the rest. Belefis is the fame with Nabonassar, from the Beginning of whose Reign at Babylon, commenceth the samous Astronomical Æra I am speaking of, from him called the Æra of Nabonassar. For this Æra we are beholden to Ptolemy's Canon. which beginning with Nabonassar, carries down the Succession of the Bubylonian Kings, and afterwards of the Persian and Macedonian, quite beyond the Birth of Christ. This Canon is a fure Guide in Regard to the Eastern Chronology, and comes in the most opportunely that can be imagined, for the connecting of facred and profane History. For as it commenceth several Years before the Babylonish Captivity, by which the Course of the Jewish History is interrupted; we can here take up the Series, and continue down the Account of Time with Certainty, to the Beginning of the Christian The first Year of Nabonassar coincides with the seventh Year of Rome, the second of the 8th

Olympiad, the 747th before Christ, and the 3067 of the Julian Period. In the mean time Ahaz having succeeded his Father Jotham in the Kingdom of Judah, was attacked by Rezin King of Syria, and Pekah King of Israel; whereupon applying to the King of Assiria, who is in Scripture called Tiglath-Pileser, he readily obtained his Assistance. This Tiglath-Pileser is by some conjectured to be the same with Arbaces the Mede; but the more probable Opinion is, that he was of the Royal Family of Assiria, his Name Tiglath-Pul-Assar, having a plain Resemblance of Pu', and Sardan-Pul, the Names of the two some Kings. It is likely therefore, that taking Advantage of the Consulton that followed

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upon the Dissolution of the Assirian Monarchy, and the Division of it between Arbaces and Beless, he put himself at the Head of those who still adhered to the House of Pul, and getting Possession of Nineveh, there established a third Empire for himself, while Arbaces and Belefis were employed in settling themselves in the Provinces they had respectively governed under the former Monarch. Thus we fee a kecond Affyrian Empire rising out of the Ruins of the former, of which Nineveh, as before, remained the Capital. Tiglath-Pilefer coming with a great Army to the Affiffance of Ahaz, took Damascus, and entirely destroyed the Kingdom of Syria, uniting it to his own. He likewise greatly distressed that of Ijrael, and even ravaged the Territories of his Friend and Ally King By this means were the Kings of Affiria first introduced into Palestine, which finding to lie convenient for them, they resolved to make a Part of their Empire. They began with the Kingdom of Ifrael, which Salmanefer, the Son and Successor of Tiglath-Filefer, entirely subdu-

3283. ed, throwing Hose the King thereof into Prison, and carrying the People into Captivity. About this Time died Romalus the first King of Rome, after a Reign of 37 Years. He was all his Life engaged in Wars, and always returned from them victorious. But this hindered him not from attending both to the civil and religious Establishment of his new Colony, where he laid the first Foundation of those Laws and Institutions, that contributed so much to the Advancement of the Roman Empire. A long and

uninterrupted Peace, gave Numa his Successor an Opportunity of finithing the Work, by foftening the Manners of the People, and bringing their Religion into a more exact Form. In this Time feveral Colonies from Corinth, and other Parts of Greece, built Syracuje in Sicily; and likewise Crotona and Tarentum, in that Part of Italy called Magna Grecia, by reason of the many Greck C. Ionies already fettled there. Mean while Hezeklab had succeeded Abaz in the Throne of Judah. He was a Prince renowned for Piety and Justice, and so much the Favourite of Heaven, that it interposed in a miraculous Manner, both in recovering him from a remarkable Sickness, and delivering him from the Menaces of Sennacherib King of Affria. But Manafeb his Son not treading in his Steps, he was fold into the Hands of Ejarhaddon the Successor of Sennacherib. This Prince was wife and politic; he re-united the Kingdom of Balrylan to that of Nineveh, and by his many Conquests equalled if not exceeded in Extent of Dominion, the ancient Assyrian Me-

narchs. While Esarbaddon was thus enlarging his Empire, the Medes were beginning to render themselves considerable by the wise Administration of Deioces their first King. He had been raised to the Throne on Account of his Virtue, and to put an End to the Diforders occasioned by the Anarchy under which his Countrymen then lived. He built the City of Echatana, and laid the Foundations of a mighty Empire. Rome begins now to increase in Power and Territory, tho by slow Advances at first. Under Tullus Hostilius her third King, and in the 83d Year of the City, happened the fa-mous Combat of the Horatii and Curiatii, by which Alba was subjected, and its Citizens incorporated with the victorious Romans. At this Period begins the Reign of Pfammitichus in Egypt. It had some time before been divided into twelve Parts, over which reigned twelve Princes, who as a Monument of their Union built the famous Labyrinth. But Psammitichus, who was one of them, incurring the Jeasouly of the rest, they expelled him, whereupon he drew an Army together, subdued and dethroned the eleven confederate Princes, and feized on the whole Kingdom for himself. As the Ionians and Carians had been very ferviceable to him in this Revolution, he granted them an Establishment in Egypt, hitherto inaccessible to Strangers. On this Occasion began the first Commerce between the Egyptians and Greeks, which as it was ever after constantly kept up, we are to account this according to Herodotus the Æra of true Egyptian History; all that goes before being so darkened by the Fables and Inventions of the Priests, that it seems very little worthy of Credit. In Media, Phraortes succeeded his Father Deioces, and after a Reign of 22 Years left the Kingdom to his Son Cyaxarcs, in whose Time happened the Irruption of the Scythians, who vanquishing Cyaxares in Battle, dispossessed him

thians, who vanquishing Cyaxares in Battle, dispossessed him of all the upper Asia, and reigned there twenty-eight Years. In Judah, Ammon succeeding Manasseh, after a short Reign left the Kingdom to his Son Josiah, who proved a pious Prince, and thoroughly reformed the Jewish State. Rome in the mean time was enlarging her Territories under her 4th King Ancus Martius, and by the wise Establishment of incorporating the conquered Nations, increased in Power and the Number of her Citizens. Babylan we have seen had been re-united to Nineveh, and so continued till the Reign of Chiniladan; but he proving an effeminate Prince, Nabopolla-

jar, whom he had made General of his Armies against Cyaxares the Mede, rebelled against him, and joining with Allyages the Son of Cyaxares, invested Nineveh, took the Place, and siew his Master Chiniladan, call-3378. ed otherwise Saracus. After which, to gratify the Medes, he utterly destroyed that great and ancient City, and from that Time Balyion became the fole Metropolis of the Affyrian Empire. Nubepollajar was fucceeded by his Son Neluchadnezzar, a Prince 3397. renowned in millory, and who by his mighty Conquests both in the East and West, raised Babylon to be the Metropolis of the World. By him was Jerujalem taken three several Times, and at last totally destroyed, the whole Land of Judah being led into Bondage by the Conqueror. This is the famous Babyleville Captivity of feventy Years, so often mentioned in the Writings of the Prophets. Greece was at this Time in a very flourishing Way, and began to discover her Acquirements in Learning and the polite Arts. Her feven Sages rendered her fa-3410. mous, and Solon by the wife Laws which he cftablished at Athers, reconciling Liberty and Judice, introduced fuch Regulations among the Citizens, as naturally conduced to the forming them a brave and knowing People. Tarquimius Priscus now reigned at Rome. He subdued Part of Tuscany, and having adorned the City with many magnificent Works, left the Throne to Servius Tullius. This Prince is famous for the Institution of the Census, and the many Laws he made in favour of the People. In Egypt, Pfammitish's, after a Reign of 54 Years, was fucceeded by his Son Nachus, the same who in Scripture is called Phurash Necho. It was against him that Togah King of Judah fought that unhappy Battle in the 3394. Valley of Megiddo, where he received the fatal Wound of which he died. Nechus was succeeded by Pfammis, who left the Kingdom to his Son Apries, the Pharash Hopkra of the scripture, against whom so many Prophecies are leveled. The first Year of Apries was the last of Cyaxares King of the Medes, who after a Reign of 40 Years, was 3410. fucceeded by his Son Aftyages. Netuckadnezzar in Babylon having finished all his Expeditions, and greatly enriched himself with the Spoils of the

conquered Nations, fet himself to adorn that City, and raised all those stupendous Works about it,

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of which we read with so much Wonder in ancient History.

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Evilmerodach his Son, after a short Reign of two Years, becoming intolerable even to his own Relations, they conspired against him and slew him. Neriglisfar his Sister's Husband, who headed the Con-

spiracy, succeeded him. About this Time Pisistratus usurped the fovereign Authority at Athens, which he held with various Change of Fortune thirty Years, and even lest it to his Children. The Medes mean while were increasing in Power under Assyages, which rouzing the Jealousy of Neriglissar King of Babylon, he declared War against them; Assyages dying leaves both the Kingdom and the Care of the War to Cyaxares his Son, called by Daniel, Darius the Mede. As the War wherewith he was threatened was very formidable, he applied to the King of Persia, who had married his Sister Mandana, for Assistance. Cambyses sent a good Body of

Troops, and with them Cyrus his Son, Nophew 3445. to Cyaxares, whom that Prince appointed Gene-

ral of his Armies against the King of Bahylon. Cyrus was a young Prince of great Hopes, and had already given signal Proofs of Courage and Conduct, in several former Wars under Asyages his Grandsather. But his Virtues are now going to display themselves in all their Lustre, and present us with the Picture of a Hero, who by a Train of the most glorious Actions, has justly merited to be handed down to Posterity, as a Pattern of all that is truly great and praise-worthy in the Character of a Prince and a Ruler. The very Name of Cyrus carried such a Weight of Authority with it, as to draw into the Alliance of Cyaxares, almost all the Kings of the East. Nor was it long before he gave Proofs of that Merit, which was already so universally ascribed to him. For having by his superior Abilities in the Art of War, vanquished the King of Babylon and Crassus his Ally in Battle, he pursued his Advantage over the latter, surrounded him in his

Capital, and got Possession both of his Kingdom 3456. and immense Riches. With the same Expedition

he subdued the other Allies of the King of Babylon, made himfelf Master of all Asia Miner, and extended his Conquests even into Syria. In fine, he marched against Babylon itself, took that mighty City, and thereby became Master of the whole Assyrian Empire, which he put under the Dominion and Authority of his Uncle Cyaxares; who now equally touched with this signal Proof of his Fidelity, as before with his glorious Exploits, gave him his only Daughter in Marriage. Cyaxares dying within two Years, as likewise Cambyses King of Persia, Cyrus succeeded to the whole Monarchy. In this

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manner was the Empire of the East transferred from the Alfrians to the Medes and Persians. But as Cyrus was himself a Perfian, and all this Succeffors after him of the same Nation, hence it has happened, that this fecond great Empire, as it ought to be accounted, obtains in ancient History the Name of the Persian Monarchy; Grus and not Cyaxares being reputed the Founder thereof. And indeed when we confider that Cyrus alone headed the Medes during this long War, that it was to his Valour and Wildom they were indebted for all their Conquells, and that he in Person took the great City of Bulylen, it feems but just to ascribe to him the Honour of this whole Revolution. For these Reasons I have chosen to date the Beginning of this fecond great Empire, not from the Taking of Balalon, but from the Succession of Cyrus, who alone can with fuffice be accounted the Founder thereof.

P. I must here beg Leave to interrupt you a little, in order to the clearing up of fome Doubts that occur, in the Part of History you have been just explaining. You may remember I told you in the Beginning, that I was not quite a Stranger to make int Times; having perufed several Pieces of History, that gave me some general knowledge of Things. Now as far as I can remember, their Account of the ancient Momerlies differs considerably from yours. They speak nothing of a record of social empire, but make it end altogether in the Death of Sandampalin. Then succeeds the Monarchy of the Albert, which concludes with Advices; and the Persians come in the third in Order, founding their Empire upon the

Ruin of the Aleks.

G. What you observe here comes in very seasonably, and I am glad of the Interruption, as it will give me an Opportunity to clear up this dark Part of H.ftory, and guard you against the Mistakes you might be apt to run into, by a promileagus reading of Authors without due Caution. You are to observe therefore, that the Affairs of the Eattern Nations preceding the Reign of Cyrus, are but very confusedly handed down to us by profane Historians. The Account you have just now recited is indeed that of the greater Part of the Greek Writers, and of the Latins who copied from them. Ctofius, Dizdorus Siculus, and Justin, all agree in this Representation of the ancient Monarchies, which can by no means be reconciled to the Relations of Holy Writ, which I have followed as the furest Guide in this dark Period of Time. However, if the Greek Accounts differ thus from Scripture, it is remarkable, that they agree as little among themselves. The Birth and Death of Cyrus are variously recounted, and Hers-



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Herodotus observes, that there were three several Traditions relating to them, besides that which he followed in his Histo-Xenophon, who was himself in Persia in the Service of Cyrus the younger, the Brother of Artaxerres Mnemon, had an Opportunity of fully instructing himself in the Life and Actions of the ancient Cyrus, from the Annals and Traditions of the Persians themselves. And sure the Relations of that wife Philosopher and able Captain, who made it his Business to fearch out the Truth in this Matter, ought to be preferred before that of Ct-fias, whom some of the most judicious of his own Nation stile a fabulous Writer, unworthy of Credit. And yet from him have Diedorus and Juffin copied all they fay. Even Herodotus himself ought to give place here, who, though a very judicious Historian, had a strong Byass to the Marvellous, and evidently followed this Bent of his Genius, in the Account he has given of Cyrus. But what is still of greater Weight, the History of Xenophon, as it is itself the best connected, and the most probable of any, fo does it exactly agree with Scripture, which, on account of its Antiquity, and the near Relation of the Affairs of the Yeres with those of the other Eastern Nations, would evidently descrive the Prescrence to the Greek Accounts, were we to confider it as no more than a bare History of these Times. In reality, the Greeks knew but little of the Affairs of the more remote Eaftern Nations. Probably the Medes under Deisces and his Successors, though far inferior in Power to the Allyrian Monarchs, had nevertheless extended their Conquests into Asia Minor, and the Nations bordering upon the Greek Colonies. By this means they became famous in those Parts, and the Empire of all Asia was ascribed to them, because the other Princes of the East were but little known. That this was but a mere Effect of Ignorance in the Greeks, appears not only from the ill Agreement of their Relations with Scripture, but likewise from their Contrariety to such of the Writers of their own Nation, as feem to have been best informed, and to have fearched into thefe Things with the greatest Care. Herodotus promises a particular History of the Asfyrians, but no fuch Work is come down to us; whether it be that the Piece itself is lost, or that he never found Time We have all the Reason in the World to compole it. however to believe, that he would not have omitted the Kings of the second Assyrian Monarchy, since in those Books of his that still remain, we meet with the Name of Sennacherib, who was one of them, and is there spoken of as King of the Affrians and Arabians. Strate, one of the

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most judicious Authors of Antiquity, relates, that Megasthenes, who lived near the Times of Alexander the Great, had written of the famous Exploits of Nebuchadnezzar King of the Chaldeans. But what puts this Matter beyond Dispute, is the celebrated Canon of Ptolemy, where we have a Lift of the Balyionifb Kings from Nabonaffar quite down to Cyrus; that is, from the Death of Sardanapaius, to the Foundation of the Persian Empire. If with all this we confider, that the facted Historians lived many of them in the very Times of which they write, that they describe the Affairs of a People bordering upon the great Empires, and who were at last subjected to them, we cannot any longer doubt what Relations and Testimonies are most worthy of Credit. Here then scems to be the Truth of the Matter. The Medes, after the Death of Sardanapalus, living under Kings of their own, became a very confiderable People: and being best known to the Greeks, by reason of their Neighbourhood to the Colonies of that Nation settled in Asia Minor, were by them little acquainted with what passed in the more remote Regions of the East, deemed the Masters of all Asia. It is certain however, that the Kings of Asignia and Babylon far exceeded them in Wealth and Power. But Cyrus having subdued the Balylmians, by the joint Forces of the Medes and Persians, as Daniel expresly tells us, and Xenophen describes at large; it is apparent, that this new Empire, of which he became the Founder, ought to take its Name from both Nations; infomuch that the Monarchy of the Medes, and that of the Perfians, are in reality one and the fame, though the prevailing Glory of Cyrus hath occasioned, that his Nation carries away in History all the Honour of this Revolution. I have still one Thing more to add upon this Subject, and it is; that, though I acknowledge a new differian Monarchy rifing out of the Ruins of the former under Sardanapalus, I have yet chosen in the View I give of the Succession of the great Empires, to make that of the Persians sounded by Cyrus, the fecond in Order, contrary to the Method followed by some others. But that this is the most reasonable and natural Division, will easily appear to any one who considers; that the Revival of the Affrian Power in Nineveh by Iiglath-Pileser, and the transferring it to Babylon by Nebuchadnezzar, were not properly the Establishment of a second Empire, but merely Revolutions in the old. Tiglath-Pileler is upon good Grounds conjectured to have been of the Race of the ancient Affyrian Kings, nor is it unlikely that Nabopellejur was also of the Blood Royal. But be that as it will, the



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bare Change of the Prince, or the Removal of the Imperial Scat from one City to another, should not induce us to multiply the Number of Empires without Necessity, when it is known that the same People, and under the same Name too, all along

held the Dominion of the Eaft.

P. Here I begin to be tenfible of the great Advantage of Clearness of Method. Already I am forming in my Mind an Idea of the four great Empires, rifing in Succession one after another: the Affyrian, the Persian, the Grecian, and the Roman. The first I think I have got a pretty distinct Notion of. I have feen its Rife, Continuance, and Fall; can connect its History with that of other Nations, and by viewing it in relation to the several Periods and Epochas that fall within the Compass of its Years, am able to trace in my Mind the most remarkable Events and Revolutions of History, according to the due Order of Time in which they happened. I mention this that you may fee how I have improved by your past Instructions, and what Hopes I may justly entertain in regard of those that are to come. But now that you have cleared up this Part of History, and removed some Mistakes I had fallen into, in relation to these dark Ages, I can listen with greater Satisfaction to the Account you are next to enter upon of the Persian Monarchy, and shall endeavour, as little as possible, to disturb the Course of your Nariation by unseasonable Interruptions.

G. In the 4178th Year of the Julian Period, 218 Years after the Building of Rome, and 536 before the Birth of Christ, Cyrus succeeding to the Throne of Cyaxares, and becoming sole Monarch of all the East, here we are to fix the Beginning of the Persian Empire. In the first Year of his Reign he published the samous Decree for rebuilding the Temple of Jerusalem, the

Years of the World. 8. Epocka. The Reign of Cyrus.

3468.

feventy Years Captivity being now compleated, according as had been foretold by the Prophets. Servius Tullius still reigned at Rome. He had greatly enlarged the City, and by his mild and popular Administration was become the Darling of his Subjects. This excellent Prince fell a Sacrifice at latt to the Perfidy of his own Daughter, and the ambitious Defigns of his Son-in-law Tarquin the Proud, who

fucceeded him in the Throne. Cyrus, after a Reign 3470. of feven Years, left his Kingdom to his Son Cambyses. Under him the Persians enlarged their Em-

pire by the Conquest of Egypt. He proved however a very brutal Prince, unworthy to fill the Throne of Cyrus. His Brother

Brother Smerdis he ordered to be killed privately, on Account of a suspicious Dream that had disturbed his Fancy. He did not long survive him, and upon his Death Smerdis the Magian usurped the Throne, under pretence of being the true Smerdis the Son of Cours. However the Cheat was soon discovered, which gave occasion to the samous

3483. Confederacy of the feven Noblemen, the Refult of which was, that Darius the Son of Hytaffes was raised to the Persian Throne. During the Reign of this Prince, Athens recovered its Liberty. Harmedius and Ariffestion delivered their Country from the Tyrany of Higher chus the Son of Pifsfratus, by slaying the Tyrany

throw himself into the Arms of Davius. This was what gave rise to the Wars between the Persians and the Greeks. From hence are we to date the mighty Glory of Athens. We shall soon see this small Commonwealth an Over-match for all the Power of the East; so true is it that Liberty ennobles the Mind, and affords the truess Foundation whereon to build the Grandeur of a State. About the Time of this Revolution at Athens, happened another of the like Nature at Rome. Tarquin by his Violence and arbitrary Measures, had rendered the Royal Power odious, and the Attempt of his Son Seatus upon Lucretia, compleated the public Indignation. The People, animated by the Speeches and heroic Behaviour of Brutto, shake off the Regal Tyranny, and declare themselves a free State. This Ara of the

Roman Liberty commenceth from the 244th Year after the Building of the City. Tarquin however found means to draw in feveral neighbouring Princes to espouse his Quarrel, among when Parfenna King of the Clusians bears the most distinguished Name in History. It is upon this Occasion that the Riman first begin to discover that noble Aidour for Liberty, that inviolable Love of their Country, which makes a bright Part of the Character of that renowned People. Here we read of the affonithing Valour of Horatius Codes, the intrepid Spirit of Scevela, and the masculine Boldness of Chila. Performa admiring the Bravery of the Romans, would not any lorger diflurb them in the Enjoyment of a Liberty, to which their Merit gave them so just a Title. But they who could not be overcome by any foreign Force, had well nigh ruined themfelves by their intestine Divisions. The Jealousy between the Patricians and Pielsians rose to that Height, that the latter retired from the City, and intrenched themselves upon a Hill-



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called afterwards Mons facer. However, the mild Persuasions of Menenius Agrippa, and the Concession made by the Senate of new Plebeian Magistrates, whose Office it was to protect the People against the Confuls, appealed their Discontents, and restored Tranquillity to the State. The Law appointing the Institution of these Magistrates was called the facred Law. and the Magistrates themselves had the Title of Tribunes of the People. This remarkable Revolution happened in the 260th Year of the City. Hippias, we have seen, had retired into Persia, and was solliciting Darius to make War upon the Athenians. He at length prevailed, and Mardonius was sent 3514. with a numerous Army against them: but Miliiades, with a handful of Men, gave the Persians Battle in the Plains of Marathon, and entirely routed them. This Victory is the most renowned in ancient History, for the Athenians did not exceed ten thousand, and the Persians have been computed at twenty times their Number. At Rome the Feuds between the Nobility and the People still subsisted. The Banishment of Coriclinus had well nigh proved fatal to the Commonwealth, which owed its Deliverance from the imminent Danger that threatened it, to 3516. the Tears of the incenfed Hero's Mother. the mean time Xerxes succeeding Darius in the 3519. Throne of Persia, prepared to revenge the Defeat at Marathon, by a new Expedition against Greece. He is faid to have been followed in this Attempt by an Army of seventeen hundred thousand Men. Leonidas King of Sparta, with only three hundred Lacedemonians, encountered his whole Force in the Streights of 3524. Thermopilæ. For three Days he made good the Passes against the numerous Army of the Persians; but being at length furrounded, he and his Followers were all flain upon By the wife Counsels of Themistocles the Atlienian Admiral, the naval Army of the Persians was this fame Year vanquished near Salamis, and Xerxes, in great Fear, repassed the Hellespont, leaving the Command of his Land-Forces to Mardonius. But he too, the Year after, was cut in pieces with his whole Army near Pla-3525. taa, by Paulanias King of the Lacedemomians, and Aristides, surnamed the Just, General of the Athenians. This Battle was fought in the Morning, and the Evening of the same Day their naval Forces obtained a memorable Victory over the Remainder of the Persian Fleet, at Mycale

a Promontory on the Continent of Asia. Thus ended all the

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great Defigns of Xerxes in a miserable Disappointment, and the utter Destruction of that prodigious Army with which the Year before he had marched so proudly over the Hellespont. The Carthaginians, by this Time a powerful People, had been engaged by Xerxes to fall upon the Greek Colonies in Sicily, while he was employed against them in their own Country; but they had no better Success than the Person Monarch, and being shamefully beaten, were obliged to abandon the Island. Xerxes dying after a Reign

3540. of 21 Years, was succeeded in the Kingdom by reasernes Longimanus. He is generally supposed

to be the King from whom Nebeniah received the Commiftion to reflore and rebuild Jerufalem. But it is now Time to turn our Thoughts a little towards the Romans, who, having been formed under Kings, were but ill provided with Laws fuited to the Constitution of a Republic. The Reputation of Greece, yet more renowned for the Wisdom of its Government that the Fame of its Victories, determined the Romans to draw up a Scheme of Laws upon their Model. Deputies were therefore sent to examine into the Constitutions of the several Greek Cities, particularly those of Athens, whose Plan of Government seemed to have a

greater Refemblance with that of Rome. Magistrates were elected with absolute Authority, to carry this Delign into Execution. The Decembers accordingly composed a Body of Laws, which having digeiled into twelve Tables, they were proposed to the People, and received their Approbation. It was natural to think, that these Magistrates, having finished the Business for which they were chosen, would, upon the Expiration of their Term of Power, have refigned their Offices, and fuffered the Government to return to its former Course. But it seems they found too many Charms in Authority to quit it so readily; they aimed at no less than perpetuating their Command, and vainly thought to entail Slavery upon a State whose prevailing Passion was the Love of Liberty. Power usurped by unlawful Means, feldom abstains from Violence and Excesses; and the very Methods taken to establish it, prove often in the End the Caute of its Destruction. And so it happened here; for the Decembers declining from that Moderation by which they had, in the Beginning of their Authority, recommended themselves to the Favour of the People, a general Discontent arose; and the iniquitous Decree of Appins, whereby he reduced a Father to the cruel Necessity of murdering his own Daughter, to effectually rouzed the ancient Roman Spi-



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rit, that, distaining to submit any longer to these Oppressors, they abolished the Decembirate, and restored the Authority of the Consuls. Thus did the Blood of Virginia produce a Revolution in the Roman State, not unlike what had before happened in the Case of Lucretia. About this Time Cinnon the Athenian General rendered himself famous by his many Victories over the Persians, insomuch that Artaxerxes, weary of so destructive a War, signed a Treaty of Peace highly to the Honour and Advantage of Greece. He had resolved to pursue a different Scheme of Politics; and, instead of drawing their whole Forces upon himself, andeavoured to weaken them by sometimes their intestine Divisions. The

War that soon after broke out between the Athenians and Lacedemonians, made him sensible of the

Advantages that might accrue from such a Conduct. It was during this War, described at large by Thucydides and Xenophon, and known in History under the Name of the Peloponnesian War, that we read of Pericles, Alcibiades, Thrasphulus, Colon, Brasidas, and Lysander. So many illustrious Men, all flourishing in the same Age, contributed to raise Greece to the highest Pitch of Glory, and spread her Fame to the most distant Nations. This satal War,

after it had lasted 27 Years, ended at length in 3600. the taking of Athens by Lysander, who had found

means to draw into the Party of the Lacedemonians, Darius Nothus, the Son and Successor of Artaxerxes. But the Persians soon became sensible of the Error they had committed in making the Lacedemonians too powerful; for that ambitious Republic having now no Rival to sear, began to extend its View to Asia, and even promoted the Ex-

pedition of young Cyrus against his Brother Artax- 3603 erxes Mnemon, who had succeeded Darius Nothus.

This ambitious Prince sell in Battle by his own Rashness, and left the ten thousand Greeks who served under him, exposed to all the Dangers of War, in an unknown Country, several hundreds of Miles distant from their own Homes, and surrounded on every Side with numerous Armies. There is not any thing in History more celebrated than this Retreat, which has been handed down to us by Xensphon, who himself conducted it, and was one of the ablest Commanders, and greatest Philosophers of his Time. Thus were the Greeks first made sensible of the real Weakness of the Persian Empire,

hitherto deemed so formidable; and the Exploits of 3608. Agefilaus in Asia soon after, where he bade fair for overturning that mighty Monarchy, had he not been recalled

by:

by the unliappy Divisions of his Country, were a plain Proof that nothing was wanting but a good General and Union among themselves, to compleat the Conquest of the East.

Rome was rendering herself sormidable to all the 3610. Nations around her, and Vei, one of the strongest and most opulent Cities in Italy, was taken by Camillus after a Siege of ten Years. But this great Increase of Territory was soon sollowed by a fatal Calamity that brought the Republick to the Brink of Ruin; I mean the Irreption of the Gauls, who deseated the Ruraz

it in Ashes in the 363d Year after it had reen founded by Romulus. Such of the Senators and Nobles as chose to survive the Ruin of their Country retired into the Capitol with Markins, where they resolutely defended themfelves till they were relieved by Camillus, whose ill Usage and Banishment had not diminished his Regard to his Country. Thus was Rome again restored to her former oplendor by the Conduct and Bravery of that great Man. In Greece the Laced monian Power began to decime, and Thetes, which hitherto made no Figure in the Hiftory of that Nation, raifed herfelf to the highest Pitch of Glory by the Wildom and Valour 61 Epaminondas. This General is one of the most illustrious Characters of Antiquity. He was possessed in an eminent Degree of all the Virtues requisite in a Warrior and a Statesman. Nor was he less distinguished by his Abilities as a Philosopher, and his amiable Qualities in private Life; infomuch that Hiftorians unanimously represent him as a Pattern of all that is great and excellent in human Nature. Theles after his Death, loft that conspicuous Figure he had given her, and was no longer able to maintain her Reputation. Indeed all Greece is going to submit to a new Power, which beginning in Philip, role at last to the Dominion of all Asia under his Son and Successor illexander. This Fhilip was King of Mucedon, and had been bred up under Epaninondas. As he was of an enterprizing Genius, and gave early Proofs of his unbounded Ambition, all the neighbouring Powers fet themselves to oppose his growing Greatness. But though Ochus and his Son Arjes Kings of Persia did their utwost to thwart his Designs; tho' the Athenians, rouzed by the Eloquence of Demofihenes, that intrepid Defender of his Country's Liberty, drew almost all Greece into a Confederacy against him; he, notwithstanding,

3665. attimphed over every Difficulty, and the Victory of Choronea rendered him absolute in all the Grecian States. He was now forming the Plan of

en Expedition into the East, and had projected nothing less than the total Overthrow of the Persian Empire, when an untimely Death hurried him out of the World.

Alexander, furnamed the Great, his Son, succeed- 3668.

ed him; a Prince who from his earliest Years had given Proofs of an heroic Soul that seemed destined for the Conquest of the Universe. Much about the same Time Darius Codomanius ascended the Throne of Persia. He had in a private Station distinguished himself by his Valour and Prudence; but it being his Fate to encounter the prevailing Fortune of Alexander, all his Efforts proved insufficient to support him against that formidable Rival. For Alexander having first settled the Affairs of Greece, over-run all Asia Minor with amazing Rapidity, desiated Darius in three pitched Battles; and, upon the Death of that Prince, who was treacherously stain by Bessus, became sole Monarch of all the East.

Here then begins our ninth Epocha, not from Alexander's Succession to the Throne of Macedonia, but from the Death of Darius, in whom the Persian Empire ended. For Alexander pursuing his Victories with the utmost Expedition, and having made himself Master of almost all the Provinces of the East, became thereby the Founder of the third, or Macedonian Empire. This hap-

Years of the World. 9. Epocha. Alexander the Great. 3674.

pened in the 4384th Year of the Julian Period, 424 Years after the Building of Rome, and 330 before the Birth of Christ. During this victorious Progress of Alexander, Rome was engaged in a long War with the Samnites, whom after many Battles she at length subdued, chiefly by the Valour and Conduct of Papirius Cursor, one of the greatest Generals of his Time. Alexander, still continuing his Conquests,

penetrated as far as *India*, and returning to *Balylon*, 3681. there died in the 33d Year of his Age. After his

Death, his Empire was variously divided among his Followers. Perdiccas, Ptolemy the Son of Lagus, Antigonus, Seleucus, Lyfimachus, Antipater, and his Son Cassander, who had been all Commanders under this great Conqueror, and learned from him the Art of War, formed a Design of rendering themselves Masters of the several Provinces over which they were constituted Governors. They sacrificed to their Ambition the whole Family of Alexander; his Brother, his Mother, his Wives, his Children, and even his Sisters. Nothing was to be seen but Wars, Bloodshed, and endless Revolutions. During these Disorders several Places of Asia Minor shook off Vol. 1.

the Macedonian Yoke, and established themselves into independent Kingdoms. In this Manner were the Realms of Pontus, Bithmia, and Pergamus formed, which by their advantageous Situation, and a steady Application to Traffic, rose afterwards to great Wealth and Power. Armenia too about the same time became a distinct Kingdom; and Mithridates, with his Son of the same Name, founded that of Cappadocia. But the two most considerable Monarchies that arose upon this Occasion were, that of Egypt, founded by Ptelemy the Son of Lague, and that of Asia or Syria founded by Seleucus; for these continued steady and permanent, and were inherited by their Posterity the Ptolemies and Seleucidæ for many Years. Thus was all the East subject to Greece, and received its Language and Customs; infomuch that though it was not under the Dominion of one Prince as formerly, yet the Greeks univerfally bearing Sway in those several Principalities into which it was divided, this hath feemed a fufficient Reason to Historians, for stilling the Times we are speaking of, the Period of the Grecian or Macedonian Empire. Greece we meet with nothing but a continued Train of Revolutions. Caffunder, Pyrrhus King of Epirus, Demetrius Poliocertes, Lyfimachus, and Seleucus, reigned successively in Macedonia, each establishing himself by the Expulsion of his Pre-The Romans were all this while extending their Conquests in Italy; and, having subdued the Samites, Brutians, and Hetrurians, threatened Tarentum with the same Yoke. The Tarentines finding themselves too weak to relist that powerful Republic, cast their Eyes upon Pyrrkus King of Epirus, whose great military Fame made them believe they should be invincible under so renowned a Com-

3725. mander. Pyrrhus obtained two successive Victories over the Romans, but in the End was beaten by the Consul Curius, and forced to abandon 3732. Italy. Antigonus Conatas got Possession of the

Throne of Macedonia, and left it to his Posterity, though not without great Opposition from Pyrrhus, who was killed at length at Argos, by a Tile thrown from a House-top. The Ackean League, projected and set on foot by Aratus, began about this Time to make a Figure in Greece. It was a Confederacy of several powerful Cities of Pelaponne-fus and the adjoining Regions in Desence of Liberty; and indeed the last Effort made by the Greeks to maintain their Independency and Freedom. In Italy, the Romans after the Departure of Firthes, found nothing able to oppose their Power. They had been enlarging their Territories by an almost continual

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tinual Series of Wars, for upwards of 480 Years, and now found themselves Masters of the whole Country, from the farthest Part of Hetruria to the Ionian Sea, and from the Tuscan Sea cross the Apennines to the Adriatic. Thus their Ambition, crowned with Success, inspired them with still greater The adjoining Island of Sicily as it lay convenient for them, so was it possessed in part by the Carthaginians, a powerful People, whose Neighbourhood they began to look upon with an Eye of Jealousy. We have seen the Foundations of this Republic by Dido, and that it was considerable for Wealth and Extent of Territory, at far back as the Reign of Xerxes. At the Time we are speaking of, their Dominions reached a great Way on both Sides of the Mediterranean Sea. For besides the African Coast, of which they were entirely Masters, they had also made many Conquests in Spain, settled themselves in Corsica and Sardinia, and possessed several Towns in Sicily. This, added to their immense Wealth acquired by Commerce, and the Sovereignty of the Sea which no Nation could then dispute with them, made the Romans consider them as formidable Rivals, who, if not speedily checked, might grow to a Power too mighty even for Italy itself. Hence the Rise of the several Punic Wars, which in the End proved so satal to the Carthaginians. That

we are now to speak of began in the 489th Year 3739. of the City, and is remarkable, not only as being

the first Foreign War in which the Romans were engaged, but also because herein they formed the Design of making themselves Masters at Sea; and, which is almost beyond Belief, accomplished it. The Conful Duilius ventured to fight the Carthaginian Fleet, and obtained a compleat Victory. Regulus his Successor no less distinguished himself, and landing in Africa reduced Carthage to the greatest Extremity; infomuch that, but for the Arrival of Xantippus the Lacedemonian, it must have been taken. That experienced General, by his wife Conduct, gave a great Turn to the Affairs of Africa. Regulus was vanquished and made Prisoner; but this Reverse of Fortune served only to add more Lustre to his Fame. Being fent into Italy to negotiate a Peace and treat of an Exchange of Prisoners, he strenuously defended in the Senate that Law by which it was declared inconsistent with the Glory of the Roman Name to redeem Prisoners taken Captive in a Day of Battle. Upon his Return to Africa we are told he suffered a cruel Death from the Resentment of the Carthaginians, who were incapable of admiring that Nobleness of Soul, which made him prefer the Interest of his Coun-Dd 2

and the conference of the Conference of the War was maintained 2 1 he with virtual Success, Humilear, the Carthage Control of the control of humilest eminently in Sichy by his The second of Section 1 at the the Conful Lutatius obtaining Leave cat Vices on the horary's Fleet near the zig diant was compelled to fubriit, and accopt of act. I cons of Peace as the Remans were when the suit. Immediately after the Conclufor early West, which and latted four and twenty Years, the contract themselves involved in another, which become the test break of Deffruction. The mescential theory of which their Acides were composed, revolting to want of that the, were found by almost all the Cities of House, who hated the Carriaghna's Government. All En-Character and that great City was mevitably left, but for the Value and Character of Hamilton forms must be a deposits to aspears them proved ineffectual, they invested or and Color et al. Hardian, furnamed Bardian. He to no Me as 10 vino, the the Robels, and recover all the revolved Circs of the Class gordan however upon this Occasion "of Single aby the Treachery of the Romans, who, taking advisite of the domestic Poubles, feized that important Proceedings over augmented the Pribute they had at the End of the Win imposed upon that unhappy. State. Carriage was obliged to take a longood Part, as not being in a Condition to oppose the e Protes Innouse. They now began to think of the chall along their Domes of in Stale, which had been goods react on the late Revolts. Handlar was fent to Company district Prevince, where he carried on the War for time Years with great Success. His Son the famous Hannikal was to the Camp with him, and not only learned under that terowich Comminder the whole Art of War, but also ut this Time come and that implaceble Hatted against the Ramons, which afterwards gave Rife to formany Wars. Sparitial faccooled Ill. Plans by the Command of the Army. He governed with great Prudence, and, by his mild and perceable Administration, the roughly established the Garthaghnian Power in those Paris. Mean while the Rimans were engaged in a Was with Years Queen of the Levilors, who fufficied her Subjects to practile Piracy on the Sea-Coart, but the was foon forced to fabriit, and relign Part of her Dominions to the Conquerors. Their next War was with the Gandy whom they accounted their most formidable Enemies, and therefore, though they began to entertain a Jealouiv of the Increate of the Carring Inlan Pewer in Spain, yet not dating to break with that Republic in the prefent critical Conjunc-

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ture, they fent Ambassadors to Asdrubal to draw him by fair Words into a Treaty, wherein he should covenant not to pass- the Iberus, which was accordingly agreed to. Hereupon the Romans applied themselves seriously to the War against the Gauli; and, having vanquished them in several Battles. passed the Po, pushed on their Conquests on the other Side of that River, and thereby became Masters of all Italy, from the Alps to the Ionian Sea. About this Time died Asdrubal in Spain, and Hamibal, at the Age of 25, succeeded him in the Command of the Army. He was the Darling of the Soldiers, who fancied they faw in him all the Virtues they had fo often admired in his Father Hamikur. Nor did his Behaviour after his Promotion disappoint their Expectations; for he compleated the Conquest of Spain with amazing Rapidity, and thinking himfelf ftrong enough now to enter upon the long-projected War with the Romans, advanced with his Army to the River Iberus, and invested Saguntum. The Complaints of the Roman Ambassadors were very little regarded at Carthage. The Loss of Sicily, the treacherous Behaviour of the Romans in seizing Sardinia, and augmenting the Tribute exacted at the End of the War, and their unjust Attempts to abridge their Power and bound their Conquests in Spain, had so irritated the Minds of the Carthaginians, that all the Endeavours of the Faction which opposed Hannibal were fruitless. upon War was proclaimed against Carthage by

Order of the Roman Senate, in the 535th Year of 3783, the City. Mean time Hannibal was taking all

the Measures necessary to secure the Success of his Designs. The Italic Gauls were gained over by Ambasladors, secretly dispatched for that Purpose; the Nations through which he was to pass were for the most part prevailed on by Presents not to oppose his March; and the Peace of Africa and Spain were secured by strong Detachments of Troops lest in those Parts under the Command of proper Governors. When all Things were now ready for the Expedition, he crofted the Herus, traversed the Pyrences, Trailing me Gaul, and the Alps, and came pouring down with all his Forces upon Italy, while the Romans hardly yet imagined him fet out from Spain. Italic Gauls readily joined him, and thereby very feafonably reinforced his Army, which had fuffered extremely in its Paffage over the Alis. Four Battles fuccoffively loft, made it probable that Rome must soon fall into the Hands of this irrefishble Conqueror. Sicily too followed the Fortune of the Carthaginians. Hieronymus King of Syracuse declared against the Romans; almost all Italy abandoned them; and the Republic feem-Dd3

ed deprived of its last Resource by the Death of the two Scipius in Spain. In this Extremity Rome owed her Safety to the Valour and Conduct of three great Men. The Firmness of Fabivs, who despising popular Rumours, pursued steadily those Isw Measures by which alone he found Hannibal could be vanguithed, ferved as a Rampart to his Country. Marcellus, who raised the riege of Nola, and took Syracuse, revived by Degrees the Courage of the Roman Troops. But the Glory of conquering Hunnilal, and putting a final End to this dangerous War, was referred for young Scipie. At the Age of twenty-four he undertook to command in Stain, where his Father and Uncle had both loft their Lives. Immediately upon his Arcival, he invested New Carthage, and took it Affability and Humanity drew almost all the Nations of Spain into the Allianc of the Romans. The Carthaginians were obliged to abandon that rich and fruitful Country; and Scipie, not yet facisfied with so glorious a Triumph, pursued them even into Africa. Every Thing gave way to his superior Valour and Abilities. The Allies of the Carthaginians forfook them, their Armies were defeated, and that haughty Republic was now made to tremble in its Turn. Even the victorious Hannibal, who had maintained his Ground in Italy for fixteen Years, in spite of all the Efforts of the Romans, was found unable to stop the Progress of this young Conqueror: Scipio defeated him in a pitched Battle, and forced the Carthazinians to submit to the Terms of Peace he had prescribed to them. In this Manner ended the fecond Pr-

3802. nic War in the 552d Year of the City, just 17
Years after its Commencement. Scipio was honoured with the Surname of Africanus; and Rome, having thus
subjected the Gauls and Africans, saw no Rival from whose

Power she had Reason to apprehend any Danger.

If we now look back a little into the Affairs of Asia, which, during the Times we have been speaking of, were entirely disjoined from those of Europe, we find that about the Middle of the first Punic War, while Antiochus Theos King of Syria, the Son of Antiochus Soter, was engaged in a War with Ptolemy King of Egypt, Theodotus Governor of Bactria revolted, and declared himself King of that Province. It was now a rich and populous Country, and had in it no less than a thousand Cities; all which he got under his Obedience; and while Antiochus delayed to look that Way, by reason of his Wars with Egypt, made himself too strong in them to be afterwards reduced. This Example was followed by almost all the other Nations



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Nations of the *East*, particularly the *Parthians*, who, headed by *Arsaces*, expelled the *Macedonians*, and laid the Foundations of an Empire, which in

ns of an Empire, which in over all the Higher Asia, and grew to

Time extended itself over all the Higher Asia, and grew to that Strength and Power, that not even the Romans themselves. when arrived to their highest Pitch of Grandeur, were able to shake the Throne of the Arfacide, for so the Parthian Kings were called from Arfaces, the Founder of their Race and Empire. These Revolts greatly weakened the Empire of the Syrian Kings, for henceforth they were almost entirely fecluded from all the Provinces that lay beyond the Tigris. Several Attempts were indeed made to recover them, but in vain, which obliged them to turn their Thoughts towards those Parts of their Dominions that bordered upon Egypt, infomuch that Judea, which lay between the two Kingdoms, became a Ground of endless Wars and Contentions, and occasioned the Shedding of Torrents of Blood. The Romans, after the Peace with Carthage, began to turn their Thoughts towards Greece. Philip King of Macedon had entered into an Alliance with Hannibal when in Italy, and this was looked upon as a sufficient Ground for a War. The

Conful Flaminius was fent against him, who, by his Victories, reduced the Power of that Prince,

and restored the several Cities of Greece to their Liberty. Though every thing thus gave way to the Roman Power, they could not yet be easy while Hamibal, whom they still looked upon as their most formidable Enemy, was alive. They dreaded the Bravery and enterprizing Genius of that great Man. Their Endeavours to destroy him brought upon them a new War; for being reduced to sly his Country, he took Resuge with Antiochus, surnamed the Great, King of Syria; and inspiring him with a Jealousy of the Roman Power, persuaded him to oppose their growing Greatness. In the Management of the War however, he rejected the wise Counsels of this experienced General, and was therefore disappointed in all his Designs. Beaten by Land and Sea, he was compelled to submit to the Terms of Peace imposed

by Lucius Scipio, the Brother of Scipio Africanus. 3815. Hannibal now fought Protection from Prusas King

of Bithynia, where finding himself still persecuted by Embassies from the Romans, to avoid falling into their Hands, he ended his Days by a Dose of Posson. Upon the Death of Seleucus, the Son of Antiochus the Great, Antiochus Epiphanes, who had been some time a Hostage at Rome, got Possision of the Throne of Syria. He is remarkable for setting on soot

Dd4 a crue

a cruel Perfecution against the Jews, which driving them to Extremities, many of them united in their own Defence under Marchas, the Father of Judas Maccalcus, to renowned for the many Victories he obtained over the numerous Armie of the King of Syria. In the mean time Perfeus had facseeded Pills in the Kingdom of Macedonia, and prefuming too much on his Wealth and numerous Armies, ventured to engage in a War with the Romans. But he was foon made tentiale of his unequal Strength; and being van-

quifhed in Battle by Paulus Emilias, was contirained to furrender himself into his Hands. Thus the Kingdom of Mandon, which had for near two hundred Years given Matters not only to Greece but to all the Kingdoms of the East, was now reduced to the Firm of a Reman Province, which leads us to the tenth and laft Period of

our History.

P. Let me here flop you a Moment, to enquire why you fix the Beginning of the Riman Empire to this Period, when they were evidently long before the most powerful People in the World, and had given Law to Europe, Alia, and Arrica.

G. The Arman Greatness indeed commenceth properly from the total Reduction of Italy, and the Superiority they gained over the Carthaginians in the first Panie War. Nevertheless, in regulating the Succession of the great Empires, the most natural Order feems to be that which represents them riting one after another, and establishing each its Power and Greatness, upon the entire Ruin of that which went before. This is the Method I have hitherto followed, and indeed the only one that, according to my Apprehenfien, preferres a due Order and Dalling nels in ancient Hutory. Thus, though upon the Death of Sandinapalus, the Agyrian Monarchy was diffolved, yet reviving again in the Kings of Ningel and Ba-Islam, that Revolution was not confidered as the Æra of a new En pire. But when the Power of the Affirians was utterly broken, and the Dominion of the wholly transferred to an ther People by Cour, there I fixed the Beginning of the Persian Empire. In the manner, though the Linkans were greetly weakened under Amer, and his Son Artaxerxes Longinanas, and forced to accept of fach Terms of Peace as Green was willing to grant them; infomuch that the Green under Chair may be juffly faid to have given Law to the Perfun Empire; yet as that Monarchy full fubfitted under Kings of its own; and was not finally fubdued till alexanar passed with an Army into Asia, and overthrew Darius in the Plains of Artela; all Historians extend its Duration to the



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Period we are speaking of. But after that Deseat, the Sovereignty of Asia passing from the Persians to the Macedonians, here begins the third great Empire, which continued under Alexander and his Successors. The same Reasons induce us to lengthen out the Times of the Macedonian Greatness to the Defeat of Perseus by Paulus Emilius; for tho' the Romans had long before given Laws to Greece, and even to the Kings of Macedon, yet that Kingdom was not utterly destroyed till the Time of the above Overthrow, when becoming a Province of the Reman Empire, all the Power and Dominion that had formerly belonged to it, was transferred to the Conquerors, and Rome thereby advanced to the Sovereignty of the World. Thus we have a regular Succession of Empires, establishing themselves one upon the Ruins of the other, and being now arrived at the last and greatest, we shall trace it in its Progress and gradual Advancement, which will compleat the Plan of ancient History, and furnish such a View of past Times, as may be fufficient for enabling you to pursue the Train of Ages in an exact connected Series.

In the 4546th Year of the Julian Period, which answers to the 586th Year of Rome, and the 168th before Christ; Paulus Emilius having vanquished Perseus, and reduced his Kingdom to the Form of a Roman Province, the Macedonian Empire ceased, and that of Rome succeeded in its Stead. The Conful Emilius was honoured with a splendid Triumph, and the Romans, who were now Masters of all Greece, began to think themselves more nearly interested in the Affairs of Asia. Antiochus Epiphanes dying, his Son Antiochus Eu-pator a Minor of nine Years old succeeded under

Years of the World. 10. Fpocha. The Descat of Perfeus. 3836.

the Tuition of Lysias. Demetrius Soter the rightful Heir was then an Hostage at Rome, but could not obtain Leave of the Senate to go and take Possession of the Kingdom, it being judged more for the Advantage of the Romans to have a Boy reign in Syria, than a grown Man of mature Understanding, as Demetrius then was. Under Antischus Eupator, the Persecution of the Jews still continuing, Judas Niacca-beus set himself to oppose it, and signalized his Valour by the many Victories he obtained over the Syrians. while Demetrius Soter escaping from Rome, is acknowledged by the Syrians for their King, and young Antiochus with his Governor Lysias slain. This however made no Alteration with regard to the Yews; they were still persecuted as before,

and Demetrius sending numerous Armies one after another against them, they were all severally deseated by Judas; but being at length overpowered by the Multitude of

3843. his Enemies, he was flain fighting with aftonishing Bravery. His Brother Jonathan succeeded in the Charge of desending the Jews, and no less distinguished himself by his Valour, and a Firmness that no Missortunes were able to shake. The Romans pleased to see the Kings of Syria humbled, readily granted the Jews their Protection, and declared them their Friends and Allies. Auxander Balas pretending to be the Son of Armschus Epiphanes, and supported

by Ptolemy Philimeter King of Egypt, claimed the Throne of Syria, and having flain Demetrius, got Possession of the Kingdom. The Carthagini-

ans, who had now recovered in some measure the great Losses sustained during the second Punic War, could not by all their Submissions ward off the Jealouty of the Romans; who still dreading the Power of that warlike Republic, declared War against it, with a Resolution of destroying it utterly, that they might rid themselves for ever of so formidable a Rival. In Syria, Demetrius Nicator the Son of Demetrius Soter, setting himself to recover his Father's Kingdom, vanquished Alexander Balas in Battle, and got Possession.

of the Throne. This same Year was rendered famous by the Destruction of two celebrated The former was taken by Cities, Carthage and Corinth. Scipio Emilianus, after a War of three Years, who thereby confirmed the Sirname of Africanus in his Family, and revived the Glory of the great Scipio his Grandfather. Corinth was reduced to Ashes by L. Mummins the Conful, and with it ended the famous Achean League. This Confederacy in Detence of Liberty had some time before risen to great Renown, by the Valour and Abilities of Philopamon, one of the most renowned Generals that Greece ever produced. indeed after him we read of no other of that Nation, who diffinguished himself by any eminent Accomplishments; which made the Hero we are speaking of, to be stilled, as Plutarch tells us, The luft of the Greeks. After his Death the Achean League no more supported itself with the same Reputation as formerly, and the Romans growing jealous of it, it was this Year, as we have feen, dissolved by the Destruction of Corinth. All the famous Statues, Paintings, and other curious Works of Art, wherewith that City had been fo richly adorned, being upon this Occasion transported to Rome; these Masters of the World, who had hitherto boafted of no other Knowledge



than that of War, Politics, and Agriculture, began henceforth to value themselves upon a polite Taste, and the Relish of what was excellent in the fine Arts. Thus Learning became honourable at Rome, the liberal Sciences were encouraged. and fuch Advances were made in all the various Branches of Knowledge, that we shall see the Augustan Age no less diflinguished by the Productions of the Men of Genius, than by the Exploits and Bravery of the many Heroes wherewith it abounded. Syria in the mean time was the Scene of new Antiochus Theos the Son of Alexander Balas, Revolutions. under the Tuition of Diodotus Tryphon, dethroned Demetrius Nicator, who by his ill Conduct in the Government, had incurred the Hatred of his Subjects. He recovered his Authority however soon after, and declared Judea

a free and independent State, in Consideration of 3861.

the Services he had received from Simon the Brother and Successor of Jonathan. By this Grant Simon was constituted High Priest, and Sovereign Prince of the Yews. the Land released from all Taxes, Tolls and Tributes, and every thing that bore the Stamp of a foreign Yoke being abolished, Judea henceforth became a distinct Kingdom, under Princes of its own. About this Time the Empire of the Parthians began to grow formidable, by the Victories of Mithridates, who having subdued India and Bactria, was advancing with an Army towards the Euphrates, to push his Conquests on that Side. Whereupon the Inhabitants of those Parts, calling in Demetrius Nicator to their Assistance, he conceived the Design of again reducing the Parthians, whom the Syrians still regarded as Rebels. He obtained many Victories over Mithridates, but preparing to return into Syria to chastise Tryphon, who after murdering Antiochus Theos, had himself usurped the Crown, he unfortunately sell into an Ambuscade, and was made Prisoner by the Parthians. Tryphon, who thought himself secure by this Disaster of his Adversary, was suddenly abandoned by his Subjects, to whom he had rendered himself insupportable by his Pride. As Demetrius was still a Prisoner in Parthia, and his Children by Cleopatra were under Age, it was necessary to look out for a Protector, and this Office naturally fell to the Share of Antiochus Sidetes the Brother of Demetrius. But Cleopatra stopt not here, for understanding that Nicator had married Rodaguna the Daughter of Phraates, who had succeeded Mithridates in the Throne of Parthia, she out of Revenge made Antiochus Sidetes her Husband. When he had settled himself in the Kingdom, and put an End to the Usurpation of Try-

 ρ in the energy part z . Who pairs the Parties. Gray Princes of Lifering Visitative Britis År flå och block i Suries Thomas - Gree Binder and ren era Burtina Mida wie fr other Elliern erichies hemals bestjänig in die Hea Roger Land College College White Foreign was tribute • to a telegraph of the College Feeling Kingland The Feeling Mark College System Links with the objective of the dynamic Army's group one Vinter Quarters with the configuration of the dynamic Army's group one Vinter Quarters with the Course of the configuration of noispeireant unit a la congregant demicion, who was habe a grant to a Frice a latin on the hap the Carter that las next north to a few him with Newscast few him as last new forces, and public to Aurantage, more to disabilité Sanghiere tout incre flutte returnée à Man into on a les alleires de la Army, the carry thather the mountiel Noise of the reside of Overflow. In the interim Demonstra was returned and Spalle and on his Problem's Death the length recovered the Kingdom. For Thomas after being three languaghes by Spalle into Some Per Chieffer and the Control of the Foreign and refuse a languaghes by Spalleire had refuse a languaghes to raise the Control of the form has Control of the four ham back into Some Proposition raise. Contact and Confined from Back linton Spring. Prog. of that by railing To the stilled it in the Recovery of this Configuration has might thing if he has to not on fir the Hagginging of trems. But on the continuing of this V days he fant a Party of Harle on the situating of this V cony, he had a vally state of a hand to bring him but a sgalar. If married being aware I read onthe had High, that he was costen over the had had not that Coloria, and by this Manas sgalar recovered his King-band But he was from applicated by Augusta Zeeban, the Son of Louis, who was in its Turn van-

gaste quished and expelled by intrivial Constitut. The Succession of the Kingo of Some being very perplexed by reader of the interline Divinions of that Kingdom, and the many different Protenders to the Crown, has obliged me to be a new at particular has their History, to prevent Chiffien. Let us now turn our Eyes towards the Kingan, who make find engaged in a War with the Narrantines in Spain, and its otten defeated, that they were obliged to fend Solid Tomillains as their has Resource and Hope, before they could subdue that warlike People. They were also about the

fame Time in no small Danger from an Insurection of their own Slaves in Skilly under Enrish informach that they were obliged to employ the whole Forces of the Republic against them. Attalas King



of Perganus dying, left the Romans Heirs to his immense Wealth, who not fatisfied with the Dominion of Italy, Greece, and Africa, were now beginning to extend their Conquests beyond the Alps, where Sextius having subdued the Saluvians, established the first Roman Colony at Air in Provence. Fabius defeated the Allobrogians, and Narbonefe Gaul was reduced into the Form of a Province. But tho' the Republic was thus enlarging her Territories abroad, she was far from enjoying that domestic Tranquillity which makes the Security and Strength of a State. The Avarice, Usurpation, and Ambition of the Patricians, had encroached fo far upon the Properties and Privileges of the People, that they flood in need of new Defenders to fave them from absolute Ruin. The two Graceki who generously undertook that Office, being over-powered by the Faction of the Nobility, perished in the glorious Attempt. After them few Tribunes arole possessed of that noble Spirit of Liberty, which hitherto makes to eminent a Part of the Character of this brave People. Faction, Bribery, and Corruption, began to pre-vail univertally among them, and we shall soon see these Conquerors of the World, themselves made Slaves to the worst of Tyrants. Jugurtha King of Numi-dia, infamous by the Murder of his Brothers, 3885.

who had been left under the Protection of the

Remans, defended himself a long time, more by his Largesses than by Arms. Marius was at length fent against him, and having put an End to that troublesome War, fignalized himfelt next by the Defeat of the Tentones and Cimbri, who threatened all the Provinces of the Roman Empire,

and even Italy ittelf with Destruction. No sooner

were these Enemies quelled, than a new and more

formidable one arose in Mithridates King of Pontus, who having made himself Master of all Asia Minor, passed into Greece, and was not without great Difficulty driven thence by Eylla. Mean while Italy habituated to Arms, and exercifed in War, endangered the Roman Empire by

an univerful Revolt; and to add to all those Calamities, Rome faw herfelf at the fame time torn

by the Factions of Alarius and Sylla, one of whom had by his Victories, spread his Fame to the remotest Quarters of the North and South, and the other fignalized himfelf as the Conqueror of Greece and Asia. Sylla stiled the Fortunate, was but too much fo against his Country, over which he affumed a tyrannic Sway, and laid the Foundation of all

the enforce Troubles by the unhappy Precedent 2025. of his perpetual Diffusorfiers. Every one in its Turn aimen at Dominion. Letterine a realous Parteur of Marine fixed himself in Spain, and entered into a Tenory with Mariniation. It was in vain to think of oppoling Frace to a General or his Reputation and

3031. Evic erre, and Perpe handle could no otherwis make the mean by introducing Deficients among his bring in King frond a ver more sumskable Energy in Systems the 19 season, who brought has to the very Brick of Fair, and was tought invincible till the press

Trepe was feet against him. Lumbe in the

gight mean time more the Roman Arms to triumph in the East. Minimization was beaten in them Encounters, and receiving beautiff the Emphasization forms himself rule prefer and provided by his victorious Encount. But this General no noble in Botto, found a impedible to remain the So diers in Obself energy and repress that I location best, which has a Principal leaves the whole Roman Arms. Seministration for information in his Frenches, and Pringer, the last Hope and Refige in the Roman, was thought as no contained dimministrating this long and definitioning War. It was on the Occafion that its Genmanise to the highest a least and policie Princes, reduced Arms whither he had

men for Refuger, will puriling his historinge, add-3041. Conflows, While born, and Jacks to the Reto Emple. While Propor was thus employed a gathering Lawres in the East. Chart was intent on craiting and particular Conflows at Home. That renowned Oration who will last to the much of his Tome in the Study of Enqueries from a continue Opportunity of exerting to a Dominist Continue, and by it more than by the Arms of the College Arms, were the dark and dangerous Michael as a Common different. Could Reme have been fived with Slavery, the Enguence of Chart, and the Virtue of Constitute Intervid Defenders of Licenty and the Laws, flewed to offer foir for it. But their Efforts availed the to five a State that was ruthing heading into Ross and where Laxury, Ambition, and Avaries, getting universally distinct of the Minds of Mon, rendered them intensible to all great and generous Defigns, and wholk fifted the noble Spirit of Freedom. Pempy reigned without a Rival in the Senate, and his great Authority and



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Power made him absolute Master of all its Deliberations. Cafar by his Victories in Gaul was endeavouring to get him a
Name and Interest that might bring him upon a Level with
Pompey and Crassus. These three combining in the Design
to oppress their Country, governed with absolute Authority;
and Cicero, whose Eloquence and Zeal for Liberty gave them
Umbrage, was banished that City he had so lately saved from
utter Ruin. In the mean time Crassus being bent upon an
Expedition against the Parthians, had the Missfortune to be
cut off with his whole Army; a Loss by so much the more
fatal to the Roman State, as it was chiefly by him that the
Rival Factions of Casar and Pompey were kept

united. His Death was followed by a bloody Civil 3955. War, and Rome lost her Liberty for ever in the

Plains of *Pharsalia*. Cæsar victorious, and now Master of the Universe, traversed with incredible Expedition almost all the Countries of the known World. Egypt, Asia, Mauritania, Spain, &c. beheld this mighty Conqueror triumphing over all his Opposers. Brutus and Cassius, animated by a Zeal for Liberty, endeavoured to rescue their

Country from Slavery by killing the Usurper; 3961. and the Eloquence of Cicero seconding the glo-

rious Design, gave at first some Hopes that Rome might yet see better Days. But it was the Fate of that unhappy City to sall soon after into the Hands of Antony, Lepidus, and young Ostavius, who by their bloody Proscriptions almost totally extirpated the Roman Nobility. Even Cicero, whose Credit with the Senate had chiesly contributed to the Advancement of Ostavius, was abandoned by that ungrateful Monster, to the Resentment of Antony his implacable Enemy. In the Division of the Empire, Italy and Rome sell to the Share of Ostavius, who affecting to govern with great Clemency and Moderation, endeavoured to throw the Odium of all the late Cruelties upon his Collegues. In sine, Brutus and Cassius, the last Resuge of the Republic, both salling in the Battle of Philippi, Rome after them never made so much as an Effort for the Recewery of her Liberty, but quietly submitted to the Dominion of the Conquerors. They did not

however remain long united. Antony and Cafar 3973.

combining to ruin Lepidus, turned next their

Arms one against the other. The Battle of Assium decided the Empire of the World in favour of Casar; for Antony upon that Disaster was abandoned by all his Friends, and even by his beloved Cleopatra, for whose Sake he had brought all

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these Missortunes upon himself. Herod the Idumean, who owed his All to that General, was constrained to submit to the Conqueror, and thereby confirmed himself in the Possession of the Throne of Judea. Thus did Octavius triumph over all Opposition: Alexandria opened its Gates to him; Egyst became a Koman Province; Cleopatra disduming

to adorn the Victor's Triumph, ended her Days by Poifon; and intony fentible that he could no longer withstand the Power of his Adversary, by a voluntary Death left Cajar in the unrivalled Possession of the Roman This fortunate Prince, under the Name of Augustus, and with the Title of Emperor, took Possession of the Government. Thus was the Roman Commonwealth, 727 Years after the Foundation of that City by Romulus, converted into an absolute Monarchy. Augustus now set himself to reform the many Abuses that had crept into the State during the Wars, and knowing that the Republican Spirit of the Romans, tho' greatly weaken'd, was not yet altogether broken, he endeavoured by the Mildness and Justice of his Government, to reconcile his Countrymen to that Power, which it was in vain for them any longer to oppose. With this View he introduced among them Learning and the polite Arts, which by the hincouragement they met with from him and Alacenas, began to lift up their Heads and flourish. Horace, Fire !, Oxid, and Livy, adorned the Age we are speaking er, and do it more Honour by their inimitable Writings, than all the Victories of the Prince under whom they lived. Eloquence alone, of all the feveral Branches of Literature. lay uncultivated. That expired with Cierro and the free Slate; nor need we wonder at it, fince Liberty, which had hitherto animated the Orator, ceafing, the Art itself became ute'es, and was regarded with an Eye of Jealoufy by the Men in Power. Linguistus having by this wife and politic Management, fecured the Tranquillity of Italy and Kona, began to look abroad into the Provinces, with a View to check the Enemies of the Roman Name, who taking Advantage of the intestine Divisions of the Empire, had committed many Outrages. He subdued the Contabrium and Affin ians bordering upon the Pyrenes: Ethicpla fued for Peace: the Parthians dreading his Power, tent

5985. back the Standards taken from Crights, and all the i eman Prifoners in their Hands: India fought his Alliance: Pagnagia fabraits it to bis Pagnagia fabraits and Common

bis Alliance: Pannonia fubraitted to his Power: and Germany trembied

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trembled at the Name of this mighty Conqueror. Victorious every where, both by Land and Sea, 4004. he shut the Temple of Janus, and gave Peace to all the Roman Empire. This happened in the 754th Year after the Building of Rome, and the 4714th of the Julian Period, which coincides with the first Year of the Christian Æra, according to the Computation in use in these Western Parts.

I have now compleated my original Design, which was to lay before you a short View of ancient History from the Creation of the World to the Birth of Christ. I have thrown together all the material Transactions of the different Nations of the World, and by referring them as near as possible to the Years in which they happened, have I hope given you a pretty distinct Notion of the coincident Periods of History. keeping this general Plan constantly in Mind, you will be enabled to read either ancient or modern Writers upon this Subject with all the Advantage to yourself you can desire. For whether they make Choice of a longer or shorter Portion of Time, within which to limit their Detail of Transactions, or in whatever Order different Authors occur to your Study, the Knowledge you have of the general Course of Ages, and to what Part of universal History every particular Period belongs, will preferve all your Acquisitions unconfused, and enable you to digest your whole Treasure of Reading under those Heads and Divisions to which each Part properly refers. Nor is this an Advantage to be lightly accounted of, inasmuch as Men, according to their different Views and Aims in Life, find it their Interest sometimes to apply themselves more particularly to one Part of History, and sometimes to another; in which Case nothing is more useful than such a general View of Things, as shall enable them to connect and tie together those feveral Parts of Knowledge, which Interest or Necessity has at different Times added to their Stock of Learning. This is so evident that I need not enlarge upon it, and therefore having now finished all I intended on this Part, I shall here conclude the Head of History and Chronology.



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PART V.

*RHETORIC

AND

POETRY.

CHAP. I.

RHETORIC is the Art or Faculty of Speaking and Writing with Elegance and Dignity, in order to instruct, perfuade, and please. Grammar only teaches Plainness and Propriety: Rhetoric lays these for its Foundation, and raises upon them all the Graces of Tropes and Figures. Elegance consists in the Purity and Clearness of the Language. Purity requires choice and proper Words; a Command of which may be gained by studying the best Authors, by conversing with refined Company, and by frequent and careful Composition: To obtain Perspicuity or Clearness, a full Knowledge of our Subject, and frequent close Meditation upon it, are necessary. You must likewise avoid ambiguous Words, a dry Brevity, a confused Length of Periods, and too large a Train of Metaphors together. Dignity arises from sublime Thoughts, noble Tropes, and moving Figures. Tropes alter and affect single Words: Figures affect and enliven whole Sentences.

^{*} I found this Subject to concifely and fensibly handled by Mr. Blackwel, in the second Part of his Introduction to the Classics; that, despairing to get any thing better, or more to my Purpose, I prevailed with the Proprietor of the Book, to give me leave to make such use of it as should be thought proper. Some small Alterations therefore have been made, and many Examples from the Poets to explain and illustrate the Rules, exchanged or added; in which last Particular alone this Treatise seemed desective.

A Trope is a Word removed from its first and natural Signification, and apply'd with Advantage to another Thing, which it does not originally mean; but only stands for it, as it has Relation to or Connection with it: As in this Sentence, God is my Rock. Here the Tripe lies in the Word Rock; which, 'tis plain, in its primary and proper Sense signifies nothing less than the Hope and Trust Mankind have in that advarable Being: Yet because a Rock is firm and immoveable, and a Building sounded on it will not fink, it excites in our Minds the Notion of God's unfailing Power, and the steady Support which good Men receive from their Dependence on him. The Necessity and Use of Tropes will be made plain in a sew Words.

r. No Language furnishes us with a sufficient Number of proper and plain Words fully to express all our Thoughts. The Mind of Man is of an astonishing Capacity, and has a numberless Store of Notions; therefore being often distress for want of allowed and proper Terms to utter her Conceptions in, she turns things all Ways; considers them in their different Relations; and views them in all their various Aspects and Appearances: that she may be enabled to declare her Meaning in suitable Terms, and communicate herself intelligibly and forcibly to Persons she has Conversation with. When we know not a Man's Name which we have occasion to speak of, we describe him by his Features, Prosession, Habit, Place of Abode, Acquaintance, and other Circumstances; till by such a Description he is as well known to the People we speak to, as if we had at first given him his peculiar Name, and distinguishing Title.

2. Tropes are used for the sake of an agreeable Variety; they divert the Mind, and revive Attention when it begins to slag and be weary. In many Cases there is an absolute Necessity for the Writer or Speaker to repeat the same thing several times; therefore to prevent the Offence which the Repetition of it in the same Words might probably give, he carefully diversifies his Expression, and judiciously intermixes plain and figurative Language. So he carries on his Reader or Hearer with such continual Pleasure, that he is insensible of the Length of the Discourse; and when 'tis concluded, only wishes it had been longer. As a Traveller, if he has a good Road and sair Weather, if he be entertained as he passes along, with variety of Landscapes, and pleasant Prospects of Groves, Meadows, Parks, and fine Houses, never considers or regrets the Length of the Way; but comes in fresh and chearful to his Journey's End. Tropes increase the Stores of

Language, by exchanging, or borrowing what it has not; 'Tis by the help of *Tropes* that nothing in *Nature* wants a Name.

3. Tropes add wonderful Ornament and Emphasis to a Discourse; and often give the Mind a brighter and stronger Idea of a Thing than proper Words. We receive much of our Knowledge into the Mind by the outward Senses: and Comparisons drawn from Things sensible and pleasant, come easy and agreeable to the Mind; as exempting it from that fevere Study and Application, which is necessary for the Discovery of those Truths which do not immediately fall under the Notice of our Senses. Such are the Properties and sublime Powers of human Souls, the Attributes and Majesty of Almighty God; which are in themselves the most venerable Truths of Nature, and of the highest Importance to Mankind. A good and beautiful Trope often gives us a clearer Apprehension of these Things, than large Discourses that are obscured and cumbered by perplexed Reasoning, and endless Divisions. Virgil calling the two Scipio's the Thunder-bolts of War, represents the rapid Speed and victorious Progress of their Arms with more Emphasis than all the plain Terms of the Roman Language could have done. When to describe the Pleasantness of a rich Harvest, the Writer says, the Fields laugh and sing; he raises in the Mind a more gay and delightful Imagination both of the Fruitfulness of the Crop, and the Chearfulness of the Season, than a long and particular Relation in the best chosen plain Words could have raised. Tropes at first, in the rude Times of the World, used for Necessity, were soon found to be ornamental, and to give Strength and Gracefulness to the Turn of Men's Thoughts. As Garments first put on for the necessary Defence of the Body against the Severities of the Weather, were quickly found to be serviceable to set off the comely Proportions, and add to the Dignity of the Body itself.

4. Mankind are mightily pleased with a happy and beautiful Trope, because it expresses the Boldness and Felicity of an Author's Fancy, which is not content with Things near and vulgar only; but steps out of the common Way to setch in something noble, new, and surprizing. By an expressive and beautiful Trope a fresh Notion is started to entertain the Mind, and yet it is not taken off from the Subject before it; only sees it placed in a better and stronger Light. That you may make use of Tropes seasonably and with Advantage, these

following Directions may be carried in Mind.

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1. Be sparing and cautious in the Use of them, and omit them when they are not either as plain as proper Words, or more expressive. Tropes are the Riches of a Language, and therefore it will be an Imputation upon a Man to lavith them away without Discretion. Too thick a Crowd of them encumber a Discourse, and make it obscure and heavy; and that is just contrary to the Nature and Design of Tropes; which is to illustrate dark Truths, and relieve the labouring

Thoughts.

2. Care must be taken that Tropes hold a Proportion to the Ideas intended to be raifed by them. And this may be taken in two Senses. First, there ought to be an easy and unforced Relation betwixt the Trope and the proper Word it is put for, or the Thing intended to be expressed by it. When there is not this Suitableness and Relation, the Expression at best will be harsh and unpleasant, but often barbarous and ridiculous. Such was that Saying of the Reman expos'd by Tully: — "The Commonwealth was castrated by "the Death of Cato." The Connexion between the Trope and the proper Word, ought to be so close and evident, that the one cannot be well mentioned without raifing the Idea of the other. This Connexion is either natural or artificial. The natural is when the Things express'd by their proper and metaphorical Names naturally resemble one another. When 'tis faid a Man has Arms of Brass, that Expression readily and naturally conveys to one's Understanding, a Notion of the extraordinary Strength and Firmness of that Man's Arms. The artificial Connexion depends upon Use and established Custom. The Turks are generally effected a barbarous and cruel People; a rude and unrelenting Person is by Custom called a Turk; and the frequent Use of it in this Sense makes the Idea of the Word Turk raise in the Mind the Idea of a rude and unrelenting Man. The other Way of prescrying the Proportion above-mentioned is, that a Trope do not express more or less than the Thing requires: That things capable of Heightening and Ornament be not debased and vilify'd by low Expressions; nor small Matters over-magnify'd by pompous and swelling Words. Euripides is censured by Arifietle for calling Rowing the Exercise of the Empire of the Oar: and so may Cate for calling a Hill covered with Brakes and Thickets, by the Name of a Wart. But if a Trope feem to be a little harsh, and yet is necessary and very fignificant, you may mollify and smooth it by a good Epithet; or in few Words without Formality, begging the Reader or Hearer to pardon the Expression.

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3. A Trope ought to be obvious and intelligible; and therefore must not be fetched from Things too remote, so as to require much Reading and Learning to apprehend it. If a Man, speaking of a House of Debauchery, says 'tis a dangerous Rock of Youth, the Relation lies plain to an ordinary Capacity: But if he calls it the Syrtes of Youth, 'tis farfetch'd and obscure, because few know that the Syrtes are Sands on the Coasts of Afric, which inevitably swallow up all the Ships that fall into them.

4. No Tropes are to be used which convey a fordid or lewd Idea to the Mind. Vile and debauched Expressions are the sure Marks of an abject and groveling Mind. He who so far forgets the Design and Dignity of Speech as to endeavour to poilon and debauch by it, instead of instructing in Virtue, and pleasing Men in order to do them good, acts against Reafon, and all the Decencies and Modesty of buman Nature.

To conclude, Tropes and metaphorical Expressions are used either for Necessity, Emphasis, or Decency. For Necessity, when we have not proper Words to declare our Thoughts; for Emphasis, when the proper Words we have are not so comprehensive and significant; for Decency, when plain Language would give Offence and Distaste to the Reader.

CHAP. II.

Containing a particular Account of the chief Tropes of Language.

for a proper Word, by Reason of its Resemblance and Relation to it. All Tropes are in strict speaking Metaphors or Translations; yet this is more peculiarly called so by reason of its constant Use, and peculiar Beauty. But more plainly to distinguish this particular Trope from the general Name, it may be thus defined. A Metaphor is a Simile or Comparison intended to enforce and illustrate the Thing we speak of, without the Signs or Forms of Comparison. Thus it we say, God is a Shield to good Men; 'tis a Metaphor, because the Sign of Comparison is not express'd, tho' the Resemblance, which is the Foundation of the Trope, is plain: As a Shield guards him that bears it against the Attacks and Strokes of an Enemy; so the Providence and Favour of God protects E e 4

good Men from Malice and Misfortune. But if the Sentence be put thus, God is as a Shield to good Men—then it becomes a Simile or Comparison. So in short, a Metaphor is. a stricter or closer Comparison; and a Comparison a looser and less compact Metaphor. The Metaphor is very vigorous and beautiful in that noble Passage of my Lord Rescemmen. 2

For who did ever in French Authors fee The comprehensive English Energy? The weighty Bullion of one sterling Line, Drawn in French Wire, wou'd thro' whole Pages shine.

This Trope may be taken from any thing which is the Object of any of our Senses; but that is generally the most agreeable and sprightly, which arises from the Sense of Seeing: Because of all the Senses, Seeing is the most perfect and comprehensive; the most unwearied and inquisitive; the most defirable and delightful. That is a fine Passage of Archbishop Tilletson; " Piety and Virtue in Persons of emi-"nent Place and Dignity are feated to great Advantage,
fo as to cast a Lustre upon their very Place, and by a 66 strong Reflection double the Bcams of Majesty." lively Way of Expression is of extraordinary Use in Deferiptions of considerable Length; it keeps the Mind pleased, and the Attention awake. If therefore an Author is obliged to give a large Account of Things plain and of common Obfervation, he must raise and ennoble them by strong and graceful Metaphors.

This Rule Tully has observed, in his Description of the feveral Parts of this habitable World in his Books concerning the Nature of the Gods. So has Virgil in his Georgies; where he has made his meanest and coarsest Subjects fine and admirable by his judicious Use of Metaphors. The little Affairs of Shepherds and Farmers in his perfect Lines appear with Dignity. His Descriptions make the Country a Paradise, and his Touch, as a noble Wit c expresses it, turns every thing into Gold. These are admirable and very beautiful Metaphers when the Properties of rational Creatures are apply'd to Animals, and those of Animals to Plants and Trees: This Way of treating a Subject gives Life and Beauty to the whole Creation. We receive the strongest Pleasure from those bold and com-

Boileau.

Estay on Translated Verse, v. 51, &c. b Sermons, Folio, Lond. 1696. p. 45.

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comprehensive *Metaphors*, which besides the Illustration of the Subject they are intended to raise and improve, convey to us a fresh and lively Image.

Thus Agamemnon (after all his Dangers, murdered by the Hands of Villains in his own Kingdom) is not faid barely to

die, but to end

---- the sad Evening of a STORMY Life.

I know no Case in which Metaphors of a bold Sound are more proper than in arrogant Speeches; when Men defy the Gods, or quarrel with the Dispensations of Providence. Philatius in the Odyssey is no arrogant Character; yet in one Place (upon considering the Afflictions of his Prince, whose Piety and Virtue he was so well assured of) he salls into a Rant against Providence; in which the Language is as lively and vigorous, as the Sentiment is ill-grounded and absurd.

O Jove! for ever deaf to human Cries; The Tyrant, not the Father of the Skies! Unpiteous of the Race thy Will began: The Fool of Fate, thy Manufacture, Man, With Penury, Contempt, Repulse, and Care, The GALLING LOAD of Life is doom'd to bear.

§. 2. Allegory is a Continuation of feveral Metaphors all through the same Sentence or Discourse, when one thing is said, and something different is understood.

Did I but purpose to embark with thee,
On the smooth Surface of a Summer's Sea,
While gentle Zephyrs play with prosp'rous Gales,
And Fortune's Favour fills the swelling Sails;
But wou'd forsake the Ship and make the Shore,
When the Winds whistle, and the Tempests roard?

The Use of an Allegory is to convey our Meaning under disguised Terms, when to speak it out in plain, may not be so safe, so seasonable, or effectual upon the Person we design to instruct by it. 'Tis often likewise used for Magnisicence and Lostiness, to raise Wonder and gratify Curiosity.

To prevent Confusion, and Want of Decorum and Propriety in a Discourse, an Allegory must end as it begun; and

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e Prior's Henry and Emma, p. 187 of Poems, Lond. 1711.

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the same Metapher which was chosen at first, be continued to the last. Several Allegeries may be brought into one Discourse at a small Distance one from another; but every Particular must be in a Sentence distinct from the rest, and must admit nothing foreign. To this may be referred Apalogue or Fable, which is ascribing the Actions, Passions, and Discourse of Mankind to the irrational and even inanimate Creation, with a Design to instruct and affect People with a useful Moral dexterously conveyed.

§. 3. Metonymic is a Trope whereby one Name is put for another, which it may properly flund for by reason of the near Relation or mutual Dependence there is between both.

By this Trope any of the most fignificant Circumstances or Appendages of a Thing are put for the Subject or chief Thing to which they belong, or on which they depend. But I think this Trope is used with much more Vigour and Advantage in the following Cases.

1. When the Narration or Counsel stands for the Action, and what the Pect or Historian describes he is said to do; which is a vehement Way of Expression, exceeding the common as much as Action goes beyond Description; and Life excels Painting.

Against hold Turnus the great Trojan Arm, Amidst their Strokes the Poet gets no Harm; Achilles may in Epic Verse be slain, &c.

2. When the Name of any Relation is put for the Duty which that Relation requires, and the Benevolence and Tenderness which may be expected from it. Anacreon is, speaking of Money says, that through it there's no longer any such thing as Brethren, or Parents in the World. When the Love of Riches is the reigning Passon in a Man, it banishes Humanity; consounds Right and Distinction; and tramples upon the most sacred and endearing Relations in Nature.

3. Rivers

[•] Milton's Par. Loft, 410. 500, 501.

Doyden's Juvenal, Sat. i. v. 145.
Ode xlvi. v. 744, 745. Barnes's Ed.

- 3. Rivers, which contribute so much to the Pienty and Pleasantness of a Country, are often mentioned by the Poets to express the whole Country in which they arise, or through which they take their Course h. A Branch of the Metonymie is Antonomasia or Exchange of Names, which put a significant and emphatical Epithet, Title, or Charaster, for the proper and most distinguishing Name. The Word which is used for the principal and most proper Name, is either taken from the Person's Country, Family, Relation, Profession, personal Circumstances, Resemblance to some other Person, or from the Virtue or Vice for which he is remarkable. Sardanapalus was a Monster of Debauchery; Nero of Cruelty: Therefore to call a very debauched Person Sardanapalus, and a cruel one Nero, brands them much deeper than to call one debauched, and the other cruel.
- §. 4. Synecdoche or Comprehension is a Trope which puts the Name of the Whole for a Part, or of a Part for the Whole; a General for a Particular of the same Kind, or a Particular for a General. By this Trope a round and certain Number is often set down for an uncertain one. The Plural used for the Singular generally gives an Elevation and turn of Grandeur to the Discourse.

Leave Earth, my Muse, and soar a glorious Height, Tell me what Heroes slew the gallant Hector, Cycnus, and Memnon terrible in Arms.

When 'tis plain the Poet only speaks of Achilles; but he uses the Plural Number to magnify the Strength and Courage of his Hero; and to shew that one such brave Man is of more Value and Importance in War than Troops of common Warriors. The treacherous Sinon emphatically uses the Plural for the Singular, when he would aggravate his Danger of being sacrificed by his Countrymen, and raise the Horror of their Preparations for those inhuman Rites,

Ye cursed Swords and Altars which I 'scap'd !!

Sometimes a fingle collective Word expresses Multitudes with more Clearness and Vehemence than Plurals would do; as in that Passage of Herodotus, when Phrynichus represented the Destruction

^b See Theoc. Idyl. iv. 6. Virg. C. iv. 560, 561. Lib. vi. p. 441.

Destruction of Miletus on the Stage, the Theatre burst out into Tears. If the Author had faid, all the People in the Theatre burst out into Tears, who sees not that the Expression would

have been comparatively loose and languid?

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But whether Plurals be used for Singulars, or on the contrary, there is need of Judgment and great Confideration to differn, that the Way of Speaking preferred to the other be in that Place and upon that Occasion more proper and beautiful: That it more strongly describe the Passion, more agreeably diversify and adorn the Period, and more effectually contribute to the Surprize and Pleasure of the Reader.

§. 5. Hyperbole is a Trope that zoes beyond the Bounds of firial Truth, in representing Things greater or smaller, better or worse than really they are, in order to raise Admiration or Lou, Fear or Contempt.

Outstript the Wind in Speed upon the Plain, Fleso o'er the Fields, nor burt the bearded Grain: She swept the Seas, and as she skim'd along, Her flying Foot unbath'd in Billows bung ...

Human Nature is seldom content with Things as they are, but is apt to magnify what it admires to the Height of Wonder; and fink what it despises or hates to the lowest Degree of Contempt. Things great, new, and admirable, extremely please the Mind of Man; but Trifles drest up in gaudy Ornaments, and a counterfeit Sublime, give the utmost Aversion to a Man of clear Reason and elegant Taste. Therefore Temper and Judgment are to be used in both Branches of this Trope, in Excess, and Defect; that we neither fly too high nor fink too low, that we neither milapply nor carry too far our Wonder, nor our Contempt. For to admire worthless Things, and despile Excellencies, is a fure Sign of Weakness and Stupidity; and in the latter Case, of Ill-nature and Malice besides. There are various Ways of expressing an Hyperbole: I shall name three which feem to be the Chief.

1. In plain and direct Terms, which far exceed the Strictness of Truth.

The Giant's lofty Head o'ertops the Clouds .

2. By

Dryd. Virg. Æn. vii. in fine. * Virg. Æn. iii. 620.

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2. By Similitude or Comparison.

It feems as if the Cyclades again
Were rooted up and justled in the Main:
Or floating Mountains floating Mountains meet:
Such is the first Encounter of the Fleet.

- 3. By a strong Metaphor: As the Poet in the Place abovementioned, instead of faying that Camilla ran very swiftly, heightens the Expression, and makes her sly. Two or three of these Tropes added together raise our Wonder and Pleafure, by carrying up the Discourse to the utmost Point of Sublimity. Pindar speaking of Hercules invading the Inhabitants of Cos, fays, that Hero's Attack upon them was not like Winds, or Seas, or Fire, but like a Thunder-bolt; as if the Fury of these was less, of this only equal. There are the fame Steps and Degrees of finking what is to be rendered contemptible and ridiculous, as of raising what should appear 'Tis a bold Trope, and must be used great and wonderful. with Caution and Judgment. In comical Characters and Pieces of Humour and Drollery, more Liberty is allowed than in serious and grave Subjects. Not only Plautus in the Character of Euclio P, but Horace in the Description of his Miser 9, carries it to a Degree of Extravagance.
- §. 6. Irony is a Trope whereby a Man speaks contrary to his Thoughts, that he may speak with more Force and Advantage. As when a notorious Villain is scornfully complimented with the Titles of a very honest and excellent Person: The Character of the Person ironically commended, the Air of Contempt that appears in the Speaker or Writer, and the Exorbitance of the Commendations, sufficiently discover the Dissimulation. Milton represents God Almighty addressing his blessed Son upon the Revolt of Lucifer, and laughing to scorn the Attempts of those most ungrateful and infatuated Rebels in a very majestic Irony.

Son! Thou in whom My Glory I behold In full Resplendence, Heir of all my Might,

Nearly

[•] Dryd. Virg. Æn. viii. 691, 692. • In Aulularia.
• Sat. ii. 3.

Nearly it now concerns Us to be fure Of our Omnipotence !!

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And Dryden finely ridicules the Egyptian Worship, in a laughing ironical Commendation of their Leek and Onion Gods.

Th' Egyptian Rites the Jebusites embrac'd;
Where Gods we e recommended by their Taste.
Such favory Deities must needs be good,
As serv'd at once for Worship, and for Food.
ABBALOM and ACHITOPHEL.

This Way of Expression has great Force in correcting Vice and Hypocrify, and dashing Vanity and Impudence out of Countenance. To dress up a scandalous Wretch in all the Virtues and amiable Qualities that are directly contrary to the vicious Dispositions that have rendered him infamous; only makes him ridiculous in these Mock-ornaments; and more effectually exposes him for a public Mark of Derision. A lively and agreeable kind of this Trope is ironical Exhortations: By this, when a Man has largely reckoned up the Inconveniencies and Mischiess that attend any Practice or Way of Living, he concludes with seigned Encouragement and Advice to act after that Manner, and pursue that very Course of Life.

So when Horace has beautifully described the Tumults, 'Noise, and Dangers of Rome, he closes his Description with this

drolling Application,

Go now, and fludy tuneful Verse at Rome!

When a dying or dead Person is insulted with Scoss and irrnical Tartness, it is usually called a Sarcasson, which proceeds from Heat of Blood, Eagerness of Resentment, and that Arrogance and Pride which possesses the Heart of Man upon Victory and Success. Thus Pyrrbus the Son of Advilles, when Priam reproached him with Cruelty, and put him in Mind of his Father's contrary Behaviour, insults him with the sollowing Sarcasson:

Thou then be first, replies the Chief, to go With these sad Tidings to his Ghost below:

Begone,

r Parad. Loft, ver. 719, gr.

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Begone,—acquaint him with my Crimes in Troy, And tell my Sire of his degenerate Boy.

Pit's Virgil.

Custom has prevailed that any keen Saying, which has the true Point of Satire, and cuts deep, is called a Sarcasm.

§. 7. Catachresis or Abuse, is a bold Trope, which borrows the Name of one thing to express another; which either has no proper Name of its own, or, if it has, the borrowed Name is more surprizing and acceptable by its Boldness and Novelty. Milton's Description of Raphael's Descent from the Empyreal Heaven to Paradise, affords us a beautiful Example of this Trope.

— Down thither prone in Flight

He speeds, and thro' the vast Etherial Sky
Sails between Worlds and Worlds — '.

The first Way of using this Trope may be illustrated by this Instance. A Parricide is strictly and properly a Murderer of his Father; but there is no appropriate and authorized Name in English for a Murderer of his Mother, Brother, Sister, &c. therefore we call all those bloody unnatural Wretches by the Name of Parricides: And tho' at first there be a seeming Impropriety in the Word so applied; yet, upon a little Consideration, we find that the Sense runs clear, and the Connexion is just and obvious. 'Tis no Trespass against Reason and Propriety of Language to give the same odious Name to Monssers, who are involved in the same enormous Guilt.

By this short Account 'tis plain, that there is a general Analogy or Relation between all Tropes, and that in all of them a Man uses a foreign or strange Word instead of a proper one; and therefore says one thing, and means something different. When he says one thing, and means another almost the same, 'tis a Synecdoche or Comprehension: When he says one thing, and means another mutually depending, 'tis a Metonymie: When he says one thing, and means another opposite or contrary, 'tis an Irony: When he says one thing, and means another like to it, it is a Metaphor: A Metaphor continued and often repeated, becomes an Allegory: A Metaphor carried to a great Degree of Boldness, is an Hyperbole; and when at first Sound it seems a little harsh and shocking, and may be imagined to carry some Impropriety in it, 'tis a Catachress.

CHAP.

CHAP. III.

Giving an Account of the Nature, Necessity, and Use of Figures in general.

Figure is a Manner of Speaking different from the ordinary and plain Way, and more emphatical; extressing a Passion, or containing a Beauty.

The best and most lively Figures do both. The Impressions of Wonder, Love, Hatred, Fear, Hope, &c. made upon the Soul of Man, are characteriz'd and communicated by Figures;

which are the Language of the Passens.

The Soul has such a mighty Command over that curious Organ the human Body, that it can make all the Impressions upon it, (while it is in Health and Harmony) whereby all the different Affections and Passions are expressed. It can by its sovereign Pleasure so move and alter the Blood and Spirits, so contract or relax the Nerves, that in Sorrow, a Deadness and Heaviness shall make the Countenance sour: In Anger, a brutal Fierceness shall enflame the Eyes, and ruffle the Looks into Deformity: In Joy and Chearfulness, a sprightly Gayety shall smile in the Eye, and enliven every Feature. The Soul likewise tunes the Organs of Speech, and sets them to that Key which will most effectually express her present Sentiments. So that in Joy the Voice shall be tender, flowing and rapturous; in Anger shrill, eager, and full of Breaks: In Fear low, confus'd, and thammering.

6. 2. The Necessity of Figures may appear from the fol-

lowing Realons.

1. Without Figures you cannot describe a Man in a Passion; because a Man in a cool and sedate Temper, is quite another Thing from himfelf under a Commotion and vehement Disturbance. His Eyes, his Motions and Expressions are entirely different; and why should not the Description of him in such contrary Postures be so? Nay, the several Passures must be as carefully distinguished, as a State of Indolence and Tranquillity from any one Paffion. For instance, the same Hector taking leave of his Lady and only Son, and afterwards pursuing the Greeks with Fire and Sword to their Ships, must be painted with very different Colours. There he must lay aside all the Fierceness and Terror of the Warrior, and appear with all the Condescension and Goodness of a tender Husband

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2. If Writers and Speakers defire to affect their Readers and Hearers, they must not only appear to be concerned, but

must really be so.

When a Man is vehemently moved with the Passien which he would inspire other People with, he speaks with Spirit and Energy; and will naturally break out into strong Figures. and all the fuitable and moving Expressions of an undissembled Eloquence. Unlearned People, in Grief, Anger, Joy, &c. utter their Passion with more Vehemence and Fluency, than the most learn'd, who are not heartily interested in the Matter, nor thoroughly warmed with the Puffion which they describe. What the Speaker is, for the most part the Audience will be: If he be zealously concerned, they will be attentive; if he be indifferent, they will be perfectly careless and cold. Fire kindles Fire; Life and Heat in the Speaker, enliven and inspirit the Hearer. As we see by common Experience, that one very gay and pleasant Person propagates his chearful Humour where-ever he comes; and gives Vivacity to a whole Company. So on the contrary, a four and fullen Wretch damps the Liveliness of all about him, and infects them with his own melancholy and gloomy Temper.

3. Figures are highly serviceable to clear difficult Truths: to make a Style pleasant and pathetical; and to awaken and

fix Attention.

§ 3. I shall now only mention some of the Directions which are given by pur great Masters for the prudent and

proper Use of Figures.

1. Let your Discourse always be sounded upon Nature and Sense, supported with strong Reason and Proof; and then add the Ornaments and Heightening of Figures. A Man of clear Understanding will despise the Flourish of Figures, without Sense; and Pomp of Words, that wants Truth and Substance of Things. The regular Way is to inform the Judgment, and then to raise the Passiens. When your Hearer is satisfy'd with your Argument, he is then at leifure to indulge his Passions; and your Eloquence and pathetical Address will scarce fail to have Power and Prevalence over him.

2. Be sparing in the Use of Figures. A Passion described ' in a Multitude of Words, and carried on to a disproportionate Length, fails of the End propos'd, and tires instead of pleasing. Contract your Force into a moderate Compass, and be Vol. I. Fſ

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nervous rather than copious: But if at any time there be Occasion for you to indulge a Copiousness of Style, beware it

does not run into Looseness, and Luxuriance.

2. Figures must not be over-adorned, nor affectedly labour'd, and ranged into nice and scrupulous Periods. By Affectation and Shew of Art, the Orator betrays and exposes himself; and 'tis apparent, that he is rather ambitious to fet off his Parts and Wit, than to express his sincere Concern and Passes. His Hearer will despile him as a Trisler, and hate his Hypocrify, who attempts to delude him with false Reasoning; and perfuade him to the Belief of what he himself does not believe. Therefore he will stand upon his Guard against a Man, whom he suspects to have Designs upon him; and who proposes to triumph over his Weakness. Sprightliness of Thought and Sublimity of Sense most naturally produce vigorous and transporting Figures; and most beautifully conceal the Art, which must be us'd in cloathing them in suitable Expressions. The Thought is so bright, and the Turn of the Period so easy, that the Hearer is not aware of their Contrivance, and therefore is more effectually influenced by their Force.

C II A P. IV.

Of the chief and most moving Figures of Speech.

§. 1. EXclamation is a Figure that expresses the Breaking out and Vehemence of any Passion.

O unexpected Stroke, werfe than of Death!
Must I thus leave thee, Paradise? Thus have
Thee, native Soil; these happy Walks and Shades
Fit Haunt of Gods P!

Some Figures are the proper Language of some particular Passions; but this expresses them all. Tis the Voice of Nature when she is in Concern and Transport. The Pession of Andromacke, upon the News of her Son's being sentenced to be thrown from a Precipice and dash'd in pieces, and that of Heculs

Milion's Par. Left, xi. ver. 268, &c.

Hecuba upon the View of his mangled Body, are as masterly Touches as any in Euripides 2: On that Occasion the tragic Muse put on her Robe of deepest Mourning, and deplored the untimely and cruel Fate of the Royal Innocent in the tenderest and most melting Strains of Sorrow.

§. 2. Doubt expresses the Debate of the Mind with itself upon a pressing Difficulty. A Man in a severe Strait and Perplexity first takes up one Resolution, and then lays it aside; after thinks another Method more convenient, and then changes again. He is tossed to and fro with strong Tides of Passion; and at last, after terrible Struggles, scarce sixes upon a final Determination. Thus Dido after the Departure of her Lover.

What shall I do? What Succour can I find?
Become a Suppliant to Hiarba's Pride?
And take my Turn to court and be deny'd?
Shall I with this ungrateful Trojan go?
Forsake an Empire, and attend a Foe?
Then shall seek alone the churlish Crew;
Or with my Fleet their slying Sails pursue?
Rather with Steel thy guilty Breast invade,
And take the Fortune thou thyself hast made.

This Figure keeps us in eager Attention, and moves all our Tenderness and Compassion for the unhappy Sufferer.

§. 3. Correction is a Figure, whereby a Man earneftly retracts and recalls what he had faid or resolved.

On me, me only, as the Source and Spring
Of all Corruption, all the Blame lights due:
So might the Wrath! Fond Wish! could'st thou support
That Burthen heavier than the Earth to bear;
Than all the World much heavier '?

When what an Author hath faid appears too much, he abates by correcting himself, and using some lessening Ex-F f 2 pression.

^{*} Troades, 735, &c. 1167, &c. Dryd. Virg. Æn. iv.

⁻ Adam in Milt. Par. Loft, x. 831, &c.

pression. "What is it then can give Men the Heart and "Courage,—but I recall that Word, because it is not true "Courage, but Fool-hardiness, to outbrave the Judgments of Gad 4?" When what has been said appears too little, he strengthens the Expression, and enlarges the Thought. "This was a great Trouble to me, but that much more, that before my Face they thus entertained, carefied, and kissed my Enemy: My Enemy did I say? Nay, the Enemy of the Laws, the Courts of Just co, of Peace, his Court, and all good Men "." An Author thus correcting and checking himself, prevents Cavils and Objections; and by the unexpected Quickness of the Recollection and Turn pleasingly surprizes the Reader, and all of a sudden sires him with his own Passion.

\$. 4. Suppression is a Figure whereby a Perfex in Rage, or other Disturbance in Mind, speaks not out all he means, but jud-

denly breaks off his Discourse.

The Gentleman in Terence, extremely incens'd against his Adversary, only accosts him with this abrupt Saving, Termest all——: The Excess of his Indignation and Rage cheaked the Passage of his Voice, and would not suffer him to utter the rest: But in these Cases, though the Discourse is not complete, the Meaning is readily understood; and the Evidence of the Thought easily supplies the Descent Words.

Suppression sometimes proceeds from Modesty, and Fear of

uttering any Word of ill and offensive Sound.

§. 5. Omission is, when an Author pretends that he cinceals and smits what he declares. "I do not mention my Adver"fary's scandalous Gluttony and Drunkenness: I take no no"tice of his brutal Luss; I say not a Syllable of his Trea"chery, Malice, and Cruelty." In eager Passen and Contests, Variety of Arguments crowd into a Man's Thoughts; but he is so moved and disturbed that he cannot regularly enlarge upon them. Besides, he has some Fear, that if he should say all his Indignation would distate, he might trespass upon the Patience of his Heaver; therefore he only gives shorter Hints, and pretends that Time and Reverence for them will not allow him to be more copious and express. This Figure is serviceable to an Orator in proposing his weaker Arguments; which yet he knows lie more level to the Capacities of some Part of his Audience; which he desires to have

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an Interest in. Therefore he does not quite omit them, because they may make Impressions on those People to his Advantage: And yet he mentions them with an Air of Modesty and Caution; lest he should disgust another Part of his Audience, to whom they don't appear of equal Force and Conviction.

§. 6. Address or Apostrophe is, when in a vehement Commotion a Man turns himself on all Sides, and applies to the Living and Dead, to Angels and Men, to Rocks, Groves, and Rivers.

O Woods, O Fountains, Hillocks, Dales, and Bowers, With other Echo late I taught your Shades
To answer, and resound for other Song .

When the Passion is violent, it must break out and discharge itself. By this Figure the Person mov'd desires to interest universal Nature in his Cause; and appeals to all the Creation for the Justiness of his Transport. Adam's Morning Hymn in Milton 8 is a Chain and Continuation of the most beautiful and

charming Apostrophes.

When the Poets address a Muse or some divine Power to affift and direct them, this Kind of Apostrophe or Poetical Prayer is called Invocation. By which they gain Esteem both to their Persons and Poems: They are look'd upon as savoured, and their Poems as inspir'd, by Heaven. In the Progress of their Poems they often repeat these pious Addresses; especially when a Difficulty arises that surmounts human Power; or a Secret is to be reveal'd that could not be found out by human Sagacity.

A Species of this Figure I take Communication to be; when the Speaker applies to the Judges and Hearers, and entreats their Opinion upon the Question in Debate. By this a Man declares his hearty and unseigned Concern for the Cause; and pays Deference and Honour to those he addresses. They are pleased with his Modesty and Submission, and so inclin'd to hear and judge with Favour. There is a Sort of Communication something different from this, when a Person excuses his Condust, gives Reasons for it, and appeals to these about him, whether they are not satisfuctory.

Let envious Jealousy, and canker'd Spite, Produce my Actions to severest Light, And tax my open Day, or secret Night, F f 2

S Did

* Par. Loft, v. ver. 153, &c.

Adam in Milt. Par. Loft, x. 860, &c.

Did e'er my Tongue speak my unguarand Hoart
The looft inclin'd to play the Wanton's Part?
Did e'er my Eye one inward Thought round,
Which Angels might not hear, and Firgins toll?
And haft then in my Conduct, Henry, known
One Findt but that which I maft ever own,
That I, of all Manhind, have lov'd but thee along?

PETOR.

5. 7. Suspension begins and corries on a Paried or Diferente in such a manner as pleases the Render all along; and hope him in Empellation of some considerable thing in the Combision. With what infinite Sweetness does Eve carry on, with what grateful Surprise close up that rapturous Speech to Admir?

Sweet is the Breath of More, her Rifug facuat, With Charm of earlieft Birds ; pleafant the Sun, When first in this delightful Land be firmed His orient Bouns on Herb, Tree, Fruit and Flower, Gliffring with Dew: fragrant the fertile Earth After fost Showers: and fiveet the coming on Of grateful Evening mild: then, filent Night, With this ber felema Bird, and t is fair Mon, And thefe the Gems of Heaven, her flarry Train. But neither Breath of Morn when the afcends With Charm of carliest Birds, wer rifing Sun In this delightful Land, nor Herb, Fruit, Flower, Gliff ring with Dew, nor Fragrance after Showers, Nor grateful Evening mild, nor filent Night With this ber folemn Bird, nor Walk by Moon, Ner glittering Starlight—without thee is funet.

This beautiful Figure makes People attentive; and when 'tis perfect, as here, amply rewards the closest Attention. Great Care must be taken that the Expectation which is rais'd be not disappointed: For nothing is more vain and contemptible than to promise much and perform little; to usher in an errant Trisse with the Formality of Presace and solemn Preparation.

5. 8. Interrogation is, when the Writer or Orator raises Questions and returns Answers; not as if he was in a Speech or continued Discourse, but in Dialogue or Conference with his Reader, Auditor, or Adversary.

" Tell

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"Tell me, will you go about and ask one another, What " News? What can be more aftonishing News than this, "that the Man of Macedon makes War upon the Athenians, " and disposes the Affairs of Greece? Is Philip dead? No; " but he's fick. What signifies it to you whether he be dead " or alive! For if any thing happen to this Philip, you'll " immediately raise up another 1." All this delivered without Interrogation had been faint and ineffectual; but the Suddenness and Fervor of Question and Answer imitates the Transport of Passion; makes the Discourse to sound with Probability, and to be heard with Attention. What is faid after such a warm and eager Manner does not feem the Effect of Study and Premeditation, but the natural Result and Effusion of a Man's unfeigned Concern. The Orator conceals his Art and Defign, and so gains the Esteem of the Audience for his Sincerity and Heartiness; they lie open to him, and are carried along with the Torrent of his Passion, and relistles Eloquence. Scarce any Passion can be nam'd but may be put into the Form of Interrogation, and may appear with Beauty and Advantage in it.

Expossulation is nearly related to this vigorous and preffing Figure: Whereby the injured Person urges the Offender with all the proper Questions he thinks can be propos'd, and pleads with him from all the Topics of Reason; that he may convince him of his Injustice, and make him assam'd of his Folly and Ingratitude; that he may beat him off his Excuses and Pleas of Abatement, that he may reduce him to an ingenuous Promise and steady Resolution for the suture to ob-

serve his Duty.

"For what have you left unattempted, what have you cfeemed facred these late Days? What Name shall I bestow on this Assembly? Shall I call you Soldiers? Who have besieged your General and Emperor's Son with Trenches and Arms? Citizens? who so contemptuously insult the Authority of the Senate*?

§. 9. Prevention is, when an Anthor flarts an Objection, which he foresees may be made against any thing he affirms, defires or advises to; and gives an Answer to it.

Ff 4 II-bat

Demosthenes queted by Longinus.

^{*} Germanicus in his noble Speech to his mutinous Seliers, Tacit. Acmis. 1. 27, Sc. See alfo Scipio's noble Speech to the Mutineers at Sucro, Liv. Vol. 3. lib. 28, p. 369. Edit. Hearne.

What then remains? Are we dipiced of WW ?
Must we not ask for four of asking all?
Receive my Counsel, and security theus,
Introst thy Portune to the Poster about.
Leave God to manage for thee, and to grant
What his uncerving Wisdom sees thee want.

This generally gets the Author the Reputation of Furefight and Care; of Diligence and a generous Affirmace of the Reason and Justice of his Cause. When he puts the Objections against himself in their full Force, it is plain that he does not fear the clearest Light; nor decline the first Examination. By it likewise some Advantage is gain'd ower an Adversary: He is forestall'd and prevented in his Exceptions; and either filenced, or obliged to a Repetition; which is not so grateful as the Mention of a thing fresh and untouched.

To this Figure may be referr'd Premunitien, whereby the Speaker, especially in the Entrance and Beginning of his Discourse, cautiously guards himself against Prejudice and Misapprehension: That he may neither lessen his Interest with his Friends, nor enslame the Malice, and increase the Power of

those who watch to do him Mischief.

§ 10. Concession freely allows something that yet might bear Dispute, to obtain something that a Man would have granted to

bim, and which he thinks cannot fairly be denied.

This Figure is sometimes savourable in the Beginning, but severe and cutting in the Close; as Tully upon the Greeks.—

"I allow the Greeks Learning, and Skill in many Sciences;
"Sharpness of Wit, and Fluency of Tongue; and if you
praise them for any other Excellencies, I shall not much
contradict you: but that Nation was never eminent for
Tenderness of Conscience, and regard to Faith and Truth."
Sometimes the first Parts are fretting and severe, but the Conclusion healing.—"I am, Sir, I own, a Pimp, the common
Bane of Youth, a perjured Villain, a very Pest: but I never did you an Injury "." The Shew of Candour and Veracity a Man makes by this Figure in frankly granting so much, removes from him the Suspicion of Partiality, and gives him more Credit and Authority in what he denies.

Dryd. Juv. Sat. x. ver. 346, Sr. Sannio to Eschinus in Terence Adelphi, 2, 1, 34, 354

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Another Sort of Concession is, when fearing we cannot obtain all we desire, we give up one Part to carry the rest. When Dido despairs of prevailing with Aneas to settle with her at Carthage, she only intreats he would stay a little longer, to allow her some time to asswage her Grief, and prepare to bear his Departure.

Tell my perfidious Lover, I implore
The Name of Wedlock be disclaims, no more:
No more his purpos'd Voyage I detain
From beauteous Latium, and his destin'd Reign.
For some small Interval of Time I move,
Some short, short Season to subdue my Love,
Till reconcil'd to this unhappy State,
I grow at last samiliar with my Fate,
This Favour if he grant, my Death shall please
His cruel Soul, and set us both at Ease.

'Tis by this Figure that oppressed People in the Extremity of their Indignation provoke their Enemies to do them all the Mischief they can, and proceed still to farther Degrees of Barbarity; that such lively Representations of their Injustice and Cruelty, may strike them with Horror and Shame, and dispose them to relent. The Complaints and Upbraidings of jarring Friends and Lovers, are most emphatically expressed in this Figure: The Design of which is to give the guilty Person a deep Sense of his Unkindness, and to kindle all the old Passion and Tenderness.

Proceed, inhuman Parent, in thy Scorn, Root out my Trees, with Blights destroy my Corn; My Vineyards ruin, and my Sheepfolds burn: Let loofe thy Rage, let all thy Spice be shown, Since thus thy Hate pursues the Praises of thy Son.

To this Figure may be referred that eloquent Infinuation, whereby the Orator, after he has used all his Arguments to perfuade his Hearers, as it were once more sets them at Liberty, and leaves them to their own Election; it being the Nature of Man to stick more stedsaftly to what is not violently imposed, but is our own free and deliberate Choice. "If it seem evil unto you to serve the Lord, chuse you this Day whom you

n Pitt's Virg. Æn. iv.

^{*} Di3d. Virg. G. iv. 329, &c.

will serve?" When the great Jastia had, under Gad, in the most astonishing Manner, conquered the People of Canana, and conducted the Israelites into their Land; he exhorts them to a steady Adherence to the Worship of the true Gad, who had so visibly appeared for them; and made them so gloriously triumph over their Enemies. In the Conclusion of his Speech, well knowing the Advantage and Merits of his Cause, and that he might safely appeal to their Conscience and Experience for the Truth of what he said, he leaves them to their own Liberty and Choice. As if that heave Man had said, My Friends and Countrymen! if I should enlarge on a Matter

My Friends and Countrymen! if I should enlarge on a Matter fo plain, it might feem a Distrust upon both your Understanding and Ingentity. I leave all to you, not in the least suspecting that you can resist such Arguments as capriot fail to work upon any

one, who has either Reason or Gratitude,

1... S. II. Repetition is a Figure which grounding and emphabically repeats either the same Word, or the same Sense in different Words. Care it to be taken that we run not into infinitional forms, nor affect a trifling Sound and Chime of infigurificant Words. All Turns and Repetitions are so, that do not contribute to the Strength and Lustre of the Discourse; or at least one of them. The Nature and Design of this Figure is to make deep Impressions on those we address. It expresses Anger and Indignation; full Assurance of what we assure, and vehement Concern for what we have espoused.

The most charming Repetitions are those, whereby the principal Words in a Sentence, either the same in Sound or Signification, are repeated with such Advantage and Improvement, as raises a new Thought, or gives a musical Cadence and Harmony to the Period. These in English are called fine Turns; and are either upon the Words or the Thought, or both. A dextrous Turn upon Words is pretty; the Turn upon the Thought substantial; but the Consummation and Crown of all, is, when both the Sound of the Words is grateful, and their Meaning comprehensive; when both the Reason and the Ear are entertain'd with a noble Thought vigorously expressed, and beautifully simished. That in Mr. Prior's Henry and Emma is a very agreeable Turn.

Are there no Poisons, Racks, and Flames, and Swords,
That Emma thus must die by Henry's Words?
Yet what could Swords, or Poisons, Racks, or Flame,
But mangle and disjoint this brittle Frame?
More fatal Henry's Words: They murder Emma's Fame.

Strong

Tillotion on Joshua univ. 15. Serm. 27. A 308.
Prior's Poems, p. 192.

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Strong and vehement Passions will not admit Turns upon Words; nor ought they to have Place in Heroic Poems, or in grave Exhortations, and folemn Discourses of Morality. To this Figure, which has great Variety and many Branches. may be referred the using of many Words of the same Signification to express one important Thing. When a Man is full of his Subject, and eager to communicate his Thoughts with Vigour, he is not fatisfy'd with one Expression, though never so strong; but uses all the fignificant Variety he can recollect. So Tully for Milot, "The Assassin was baffled. "Force repell'd by Force, or rather Boldness overcome by "Bravery. If Reason prescribes this to the Learned, and Ne-" cessity to Barbarians, Custom to Nations, and Nature itself to brute Beasts, always to beat off all Manner of Violence, " by all possible Ways from their Body, from their Head, " from their Life; you cannot judge this to be a criminal and " wicked Action, but at the same time you must judge that " all Persons, who fall amongst Robbers and Bravoes, must " either perish by their Weapons, or your Sentence." An Orator in the Heat of his Engagement, in the Vehemence of his Indignation against an insolent and unreasonable Adverfary, and his earnest Concern for the Preservation of a dear Friend in Danger, exerts the utmost Power of his Eloquence, redoubles his Strokes, and eagerly pushes on all his Advantages.

§. 12. Periphralis or Circumlocution uses more and sometimes less plain Words, to avoid some Inconvenience and ill Effect which would proceed from expressing a thing in sewer and plainer Words.

When Tully a could not deny the Death of Clodius, and was defending Milo charged with his Murder, he says, Milo's Servants, without the Command, Knowledge, or Presence of their Master, did what every Master would expect his Servants shou'd do in the like Case. He avoids the Word kill'd or stabled, for fear of offending the People. This Method of treating a Subject gives the Audience a good Opinion of the Prudence and Modesty of the Pleader: One unguarded and distasteful Word, has sometimes lost the Speaker the Favour of the Audience before well inclin'd to him; and ruin'd a promising Cause.

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" Orat. fro Mil. §. 6. p. 316.

^{&#}x27; Select. Orat. in usum Del. Lond. 1706. p. 316. §. 7.

Very often Circumlocution is us'd, not merely out of Pruderce or Necessity to conceal a Secret, or cover an Indecency; but for Variety and Ornament, to give Pomp and Dignity to our Expressions, to enrich a Discourse with new Thoughts, and to multiply the Graces of a Description.

The Night's bright Empress in her golden Car,
Darting full Glories from her lovely Face,
Kindles fresh Beauties in the Eye of Hesper.

§. 13. Amplification is, when every chief Expression in a Period adds Strength and Advantage to what went before; and so the Sense all along heightens, till the Period be vigorously and agreeably clos'd.

"Tis pleasant to be virtuous and good, because that is to " excel many others: 'Tis pleasant to grow better, because "that is to excel ourselves: Nay 'tis pleasant even to mor-tify and subdue our Lusts, because that is Victory: 'Tis of pleasant to command our Appetites and Passions, and to "keep them in due Order, within the Bounds of Reason and "Religion, because this is Empire ." When an Author thus improves upon us in his Discourse, we are extremely pleas'd and attentive while he continues it; and perfectly fatisfy'd when he concludes. We are edify'd and charm'd with the Instruction of one, whom we find to be complete Master of his Subject. What Reputation must it be to the Writer, what Pleasure to the Reader, when one says every thing in the best manner it can be said; and the other is entertained with every thing that can be defired? But 'tis the atmost Reproach to an Author, and a most intolerable Disappointment to the Reader, when the one flags and faulters every Step; and so the other is fatigu'd and mortify'd, with a continual Series of heavy and liteless Periods. There are various Ways of contriving and forming this Figure, which have great Force and Elegance; tho perhaps they cannot nicely be adapted to every Part of the Definition, I shall name three very lively Ways of expressing an Amplification.

1. We amplify or raise a Discourse by selecting a Number of the most emphatical and strongest Words of the Language we use; every one of which add something new to the Sentence; and all joined, heighten it to the utmost De-

[&]quot; Archbishop Tillation, Serm. 12. p. 138.

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gree of Perfection. That Passage in Terence is upon this Account universally admir'd.

Hec verba mehercule una falsa lacrymula, Quam oculos terendo misere, vix vi expresserit Restinguet—

2. This Figure is sometimes express'd by way of Comparison or Apposition. — "When that great Man P. Scipio, "tho' but a private Person, kill'd Tiberius Gracchus, making some small Innovation and Disturbance in the State; shall we who are Consuls, bear Catiline, who is endeavouring and plotting to lay the World waste with Fire and Sword?

3. A Discourse is very happily and beautifully heighten'd by way of Argument or rational Inference. Quintilian excellently observes, that Homer gives us a very exalted Idea of Helen's sovereign Charms, when he introduces Priam's grave Counsellors owning, that it was not to be complain'd of or resented, that the Trojans and Greeks had sustain'd the Calamities of a long and cruel War for fueb a Woman; and makes the King himself place her by him, call her, Dear Child, and treat her with all possible Tenderness and Respect. Must not every judicious Reader infer that her Beauty must be incomparable, which was admir'd and prais'd to fuch a Degree by Men cool and unpaffionate, of mature Wildom and great Age, who had been deep Sufferers by it? Must not that Face be superlatively lovely, and those Eyes sparkle with refiftless Lustre, that could be view'd with Pleasure and Veneration by that miserable Prince; though they had kindled the Flames of War in his Country, and blafted the Prosperity, and all the Hopes of his late flourishing Family?

To this we may refer Climax or Gradation. Which is, when the Word or Expression which ends the first Member of a Period, begins the second, and so on; so that every Member will make a distinct Sentence, taking its Rise from the next foregoing, till the Argument and Period be beautifully sinished. Or in the Terms of the Schools, 'Tis when the Word or Expression, which was Predicate in the sirst Member of a Period, is Subject in the second, and so on, till the Argument and Period be brought to a noble Conclusion. This Figure, when natural and vigorous, furnishes the Mind with variety of Ideas, and

accustoms

^{*} Eunuch. I. i. ver. 22, &c. 7 Tully against Catiline.

² Institut. lib. viii, cap. 4. p. 405.

accustoms it to Attention and close Thinking. The Art and Contexture of a Gradation often appears plain, and lies in too open View; therefore Care must be taken that the Gradations we use be unforc'd, and abound with good Sense; be significant and dextrously turn'd. I am pleas'd with that in Dr. Tillotson. "After we have practis'd good Actions a while, "they become easy; and when they are easy, we begin to take Pleasure in them; and when they please us, we do them frequently; and by Frequency of Acts a Thing grows into a Habit; and a confirm'd Habit is a second Kind of Nature; and so far as any thing is natural, so far it is necessary, and we can hardly do otherwise; nay, we do it many times when we do not think of it."

§. 14. Omission of Copulative, is when the Conjunctions or little Particles that connect Words together are left out, to represent Haste, or Eagerness of Passion.

When Dido in the Violence of her Rage and Resentment for the abrupt Departure of *Eneas*, charges her People to

arm themselves and pursue the Trojan Fleet.

Hafte, haul my Gallies out, pursue the Foe, Bring flaming Brands, set fail, impetuous rowb.

The Members of the Period are loose and unconnected; which most naturally paints the Hurry and Distraction of her Thoughts. The Conjunctions put between the Words would have cramp'd and setter'd the Period, so that it would have mov'd flow and unwieldy, and have been far from a Representation of the raging Queen's Disturbance of Mind, and Vehemence of Passon.

Sallust excellently and very naturally represents the Rout and precipitate Flight of the Moors in these Words — Tum spectacion berribile in campis patentibus: Sequi, sugere,

occidi, capi.

The contrary to the former — Multitude of Copulatives is when the little Particles are properly put in before every prin-

cipal Word in the Period.

Livy, giving an Account how the Pleasures and Luxury of Capua corrupted and softened the Army of Annibal, amongst others has this beautiful Passage—" For Sleep, and Wine, and Feasts, and Strumpets, and Bagnios, and Rest, that "thro"

Serm. x. p. 111. b En. iv. Edit. Mattaire.

ŔHETORIC.

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"thro' Custom grow every Day more bewitching, had so weakened both their Bodies and their Minds, that the Re"putation of their past Victories protected them more than their present Strength "." This Figure, when aptly and judiciously used, makes a Discourse strong and solemn, fixes an Emphasis upon every Word, and points it out as worthy of Observation.

§. 15. Opposition is a Figure whereby things very different or contrary are compar'd and plac'd near, that they may set off each other. White placed near Black shines brighter: Innocence compar'd with Guilt appears with double Charms and Loveliness.

The Poets, Historians, and Orators improve their Subject, and much heighten the Pleasure of their Reader by the beau-

tiful Opposition of their Characters and Descriptions.

Tacitus e describes the excessive Dalliances and frantic Revels of the Empress Messalina with Silius a little before their Death, in wonderful Pomp and Gayety of Expression; that the Reader may be the more surprized and astonished at the Suddenness and terrible Circumstances of her Fall. The Poet in his fine Description of Dide's Despair the Night before her Death, represents all the Creation enjoying profound Tranquillity and sweet Rest, to render that miterable Queen's Disquietudes more moving. She was deprived of the common Privilege indulged to the poorest and most despicable Creatures; Sleep sled from her Eyes, and Quiet was banished from her Breast.

In Virgil's second Georgic there is a very agreeable Contrast and Opposition in that fine Comparison between the Court and Country. The Pomp and Hurry of State, and the Freedom and pure Pleasures of Retirement and Agriculture. Upon a full Enumeration of the several Conveniences and Enjoyments of both Ways of living, what Advantage and Over-ballance does the Peet give to the latter! The very Manner of his Expression, and Turn of his Poetry, are with great Judgment and Dexterity vary'd, and made suitable to his different Subjects. The Description of the Pride and Stateliness of the Great is drawn to the Life in a pompous Run

of Verse, and variety of very bold Tropes.

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⁴ Liv. Hift. 3 Vol. Edit. Hearne, lib. xxiii. p. 27.

Annal. xi. p. 252. Virg. Æn. iv. ver. 522.

416 -Ingentem foribus domus alta superbis, Marie salutantum totis vemit edibus undam; -Varios inhiant pulchrā testudine postes, Iliujajque aure vestes-----

But you have the Innocence and Plainness, the Sweetness and undiffurb'd Quiet of the Country, naturally represented in proper Words, in plain and easy Expression, and in the smoothest and sweetest Numbers.

At Jecura quies, & nescia fallere vita, Dives opum variarum, at latis ctia fundis, Spelunce, vivique lacus; at frigida Tempe, Mugitufque boum, mollesque sub arbore somni Nen ab/unt----h.

§ 16. Comparison beautifully sets off and illustrates one thing by resembling and comparing it to another, to which it bears a manifest Relation and Resemblance.

-She never told her Love, But let Concealment, like a Worm i'th' Bud. Feed on her Damafk Check : she pin'd in Thought, And face, like Patience on a Monument, Smiling at Grief. Shakespear.

The Poet wonderfully praises the Bravery of his Here, with perfect Serenity and Prefence of Mind, giving Orders of Battle in the Hurry and Heat of the bloody Action, when he compares him to an Angel riding upon the Wings of the Wind, and directing a Storm where to pour out its Fury.

So when an Angel by divine Command With rifing Tempests makes a guilty Land, (Such as of late o'er pale Britannia paft) Calm and je one he drives the furious Blaft; And glad th' Almighty's Orners to perform, Rides in the Whirlwind, and directs the Storm'.

Comparisons mightily strengthen and beautify a Discourse; for some Time take off the Reader from the principal Subject, and start new and agreeable Images to divert and entertain him, that he may return to it with fresh Pleasure and Eagerness. In Comparisons these things are to be observed.

^{1.} The * Georg. ii. ver. 461, &c. 16. ves. 467 1 Mr. Additon's Campaign.

1. The chief and essential Parts of the Comparison must bear an exact and true Proportion. Some small Disagreement in a less considerable Circumstance will not spoil the Grace, nor take away the Strength of the Figure. Though the greater Agreement and exacter Parallel there is in all Particulars, the more lively the Figure is. And therefore, generally speaking, Comparisons ought to be short. In running into minute Circumstances, besides the Tediousness, there is Danger of discovering some unagreeable Disproportion.

2. Comparisons need not always be drawn from very noble and losty Subjects. Those taken from meaner things are significant and agreeable, if they be set off in noble Words, if they give clear Notions, and paint in strong and fine Colours the Thing we intend to represent by them. In great Subjects, Comparisons from lesser Things relieve and refresh the Mind; as when Sbakespear illustrates the Government of a Kingdom by

comparing it with that of Bees.

---So work the Honey Bees; Creatures that, by a Rule in Nature, teach The Art of Order to a peopled Kingdom. They have a King, and Officers of State; Where some like Magistrates correct at Home; Others, like Merchants, venture Trade Abroad; Others, like Soldiers armed in their Stings, Make boot upon the Summer's Velvet Buds, Which they with merry March bring Home To the Tent-Royal of their Emperor: Who, bufy'd in his Majesty, surveys The singing Mason building Roofs of Gold, The civil Citizens kneading up the Honey, , The poor mechanic Porters crowding in Their heavy Burthens at his narrow Gate, The sad-ey'd Justice, with his surly Hum, Delivering o'er to Execution pale The lazy yawning Drone.

And common Subjects may be heighten'd and improv'd by strong and sublime Comparisons: as when the same Author compares the Restoration of a lawful King, to the Rising of the Sun, after a dark Night.

That when the fearthing Eye of Heaven is hid Behind the Globe, and lights the lower World; Vol. I. Gg

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Then Thieves and Robbers range Abroad unfern,
In Murders, and in Outrage bloody here.
But when from under this terrestrial Ball,
He fires the proud Tops of the Eastern Pines,
And darts his Light thro' every guilty Hole;
Then Murders, Treasons, and detested Sins,
The Cloak of Night being pluck'd from off their Backs,
Stand have and naked, trembling at themselves.
So when this Thief, this Traiter, Bolingbroke,
Who all this while hath revell'd in the Night,
Whilst we were wand ring with the Antipodes,
Shall see us rising in our Throne, the East;
His Treasons will sit blushing in his Face,
Not able to endure the Sight of Day,
But, felf-affrighted, tremble at his Sin.

For more Examples of both Kinds, I rufer you to fome

beautiful Passages marked below .

Those also are very strong and glowing Comparisons, where the noblest Beings of the natural and moral World, where Angels, good or bad, are compared to the Lamineries of Heaven. How sublime is Milton in his Comparison of Lucifer's diminished Splendor, and saded Beauties, to the San over-clouded or eclips'd!

His Form had not yet lost
All its original Brightness, nor appear'd
Less than Archangel ruin'd, and th' Excess
Of Glory obscur'd: As when the Soun new risen
Looks thro' the borizontal misty Air
Shorn of his Beams, or from behind the Moon
In dim Eclipse disastrous Twilight field
On half the Nations, and with Fear of Change
Perplexes Monarchs. Darkned so, yet showe
Above them all th' Archangel!

§. 17. Lively Description is such a strong and beautiful Representation of a Thing, as gives the Reader a assistative was and satisfactory. Notion of it.

How animated and beautiful is Shakespear's Description of the Queen of the Fairies, and her Power of causing Dreams?

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i. 1768, &c. Virgil Geor. i. 1768, &c. Virgil Geor. ii. 1768, i. 1768, &c. Virgil Geor. ii. 1768, i. 591, &c.

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She is the Fancy's Midwife, and she comes In Size no bigger than an Agate-stone On the fore Ringer of an Alderman; Drawn with a Team of little Atomies, Athwart Men's Nofes as they lie afleep. Her Waggon Spokes made of long Spinner's Legs; The Cover, of the Wings of Grashoppers; The Traces, of the smallest Spider's Web; The Collars, of the Moonshine's watry Beams; Her Whip, of Cricket's bone; the Lash, of Film; Her Waggoner, a small grey-coated Gnat, Not half so big as a round little Worm, Prick'd from the lazy Finger of a Maid; Her Chariot is an empty Hazle-nut, Made by the Joiner Squirrel, or old Grub, Time out of mind the Fairies Coachmakers. And in this State she gallops, Night by Night, Through Lovers Brains, and then they dream of Love; On Courtiers Knees, that dream on Curt'fies strait; O'er Lawyers Fingers, who strait dream on Fees; O'er Ladies Lips, who strait on Kisses dream; Which oft the angry Mab with Blifters plagues, Because their Breaths with Sweetmeats tainted are. Sometimes the gallops o'er a Courtier's Nofe, And then dreams he of smelling out a Suit: And sometimes comes she with a Tythe-Pig's Tail, Tickling the Parson as he lies assep; Then dreams be of another Benefice. Sometimes she driveth o'er a Soldior's Neck, And then he dreams of cutting foreign Throats. Of Breaches, Ambuscadocs, Spanish Blades, Of Healths five Futhern deep; and then anon Drums in his Ears, at which he starts and wakes; And being thus frighted, fwears a Prayer or two, And fleeps again.

In Descriptions a judicious Author will omit low and vulgar Circumstances, and chiefly bestow his Pains to complete and beautify all the effential and masterly Strokes. 'Tis the Manner of little Versifyers to take every Hint that presents itself, and run out into long Common Places. A Writer that would live and please, will cut off Superfluities, and reject the most pleasing Thoughts and florid Lines, which would come in abruptly, and quite foreign to his Subject. Many Things G g 2

must be left to the Imagination of the Reader, and fuefacile Silence has its Emphasis. Virgil m tells his Reader, that Exceptice was killed by a Serpent lurking in a Bank, but says nothing more of that venomous Creature. A Poetaster would probably have spent as many Lines in a horrid Description of it, as compose that admirable Poem: But that divine Poet knew there was no room for such a Liberty here, his Design in this short and exquisite Piece being only to give a moving Pattern of true conjugal Affection, and to show the rapturous Force which good Music and Poetry have over the most sheree and svage Tempers.

But he describes the two Serpents which destroyed Linux " and his Sons in such particular Circumstances, and paints the devouring Monfters in such firong and frightful Colours, that they amaze and chill the Reader. Here his only Builness was to raise Terror, and give his Reader a due Notion of the Displeasure of the Gods against Troy, which was to fixt and implacable that they thus fignally cut off an innocent Man and his Family, for giving his Countrymen Advice, which tended to the opposing their severe Decree, and the Preservation of that devoted Gity. The Description of a Perfor is called a Character, in drawing which the true Proof of Art and Judgment is to hit a beautiful Likeness; and with a delicate Touch to give those Features and Colours which are peculiar to the Perjon, and distinguish him from the rest of Mankind. In every good and lively Description a Man must come to an Enumeration of the chief Particulars; for Generals are often obscure and faint; a judicious Account of Particulars fets every thing in full View, and makes a strong and lasting Impression upon the Reader.

§. 18. Vision or Image is a Representation of Things distant and unseen, in order to raise Wonder, Terror, or Compassion, made with so much Life and Emphasis, that as the Peet last full View of the whole Scene he describes, so be makes the Reader see it in the same strong Light.

Or mad Orestes, when his Mother's Gboff
Full in his Face infernal Torches toff;
And phoch her fnaky Locks: He founs the Sight,
Flies o'er the Stage for priz'd with mortal Fright;
The hurses guard the Dor, and intercept his Flight?

[&]quot; Geor iv. 45-, &c. * Æn. ii. 203, &c.



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This noble Image raises Consternation and Terror: An Instance of tender Image to move Pity we have in those soft and fweet Lines of Spenfer 1.

-Not one Word more she said; But breaking off the End for want of Breath, And fliding foft, as down to Sleep her laid, And ended all ber Woe in quiet Death.

The Poet, or Orator, upon these Occasions is so fully posselfed of, and vehemently intent upon his Subject, that he is really transported with those Passions which he wou'd inspire his Readers or Hearers with; and by that Strength and noble Enthusiasm of Imagination, he is happily qualified to captivate their Affections. A commanding Genius can impress his own Images upon those he addresses; can move the inmost Springs of their Soul; and with a pleafing Power triumph over the whole Man.

§. 19. Prosopopeia, personisting, or raising Qualities or Things inanimate into Persons, bas two Parts.

1. When good and bad Qualities, Accidents, and Things inanimate are introduced in Discourse, and describ'd as living and rational Beings. Virtue and Pleasure address young Hercules as two bright Ladies of opposite Parties: The one would fain induce him to decline the Toils of War, and indulge himself in Ease and Luxury: The other earnestly exhorts him to shake off Sloth, and pursue true Fame and folid Glory. Take the Description of them from an elegant Poem which Mr. Spence has given us in his Polymetis.

The first, in native Dignity surpass'd; Artiefs and unadorn'd, she pleas'd the more: Health, der her Looks, a genuine Lustre cast; A Vest, more white than new-fall n Snew, she work. August she trod, yet modest was her Air; Serene ber Eye, yet darting heavenly Fire. Still she drew near; and nearer still more fair, More mild appear'd: yet fuch as might inspire Pleasure corrected with an aweful Fear; Majestically fweet, and amiably severe.

The other Dame frem'de'en of fairer Hue;
But bold her Mein; ungwarded rav'd her Eye;
And her fuff'd Cheek contest det neaver d'ieux,
The herrow'd Bluftes of an artful Die.
All fift and delicate, with airy Swim
Lightly the danc'd along; her Rote betray'd
Throf the clear Texture every tender Limb.
Heightening the Charms it only found to frain;
And as it flow'd adown, to hope and thin,
Her Stature foow'd more tall, more frawy-white ler Stes.

And in the fame Poem, how animated and striking is the Description of their different Effects and Consequences, by being put into the Mouth of Firms as a Person, and assemble to Fire as a Person also!

Val Happineis enjoy thy gay Allies?

A Youth of Folies, an old Age of Cares:
Young, yet enervate, old, yet notes to lie.
View waftes their Vigour, and their Alina impairs.
View, talle, delicate, in thoughtless Each,
Redering Wess for Age, when Prime they fortal,
Alan retried, hopeless, in the exil Days
With Screen to the Verge of Life to watered.
Grief a with the present of the palk a grantal.
I by the, and one despised of they are, no more would.

But with the Grds, and gedille Men I divelled Me, his juprime Delight, the alonghys Sire Regards well pleased whatever Wends excelled at all or diches or among I in fire.

Come of which strongth, and Industry with Art, In Union meet conjoined, with me rediled Me Dictates arm, butruff, and mend the Heart of The jureal Policy, the wifest Guide.

With me true Priend hip dwells of he deigns to bind to be governed Souls aime, whom I before have juiked.

Not need the Friends the various ceptly Feat:

Proper to them to Effects of Art propiles:

Proper to them to Effects of Art propiles:

Proper to them to Effects of Art propiles:

Swort is not Simple light, countain prong they nice.

The Health, thus foy, thus Proping and Kendun,

Properties on Public and by a lot Descent,

Though to Age all gently finding down,

Locally with Frampore on a Life well opents.

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In which, no Hour flew unimproved away; In which, some generous Deed distinguish'd every Day.

And when, the destin'd Term at length compleat, Their Asbes rest in Peace; eternal Fame Sounds wide their Praise: triumphant over Fate, In facred Song for ever lives their Name.

The Invention and Description of these imaginary Persons, if manag'd with Judgment, raises Admiration, and gives Grace and Grandeur to a Discourse. The Poets, who were the Divines of ancient Ages, finding that every Part of the World was influenced by a superior intelligent *Power*, and every where observing bright and manifest Marks of Art and Wisdom, seigned a vast Number of Deities, to all which they assigned their peculiar Provinces. The Rivers had their Guardian Gods; the Fountains their Nymphs; Flora prefided over the Flowers, Pomona over the Fruits, &c. The Fable was gayly deck'd up to amuse and please the People; but the great Moral and Truth, that lay at the Bottom of the Fiction, was, that a wife and powerful and bounteous Providence overrul'd and preserved the Universe.

Some of the finest Apostrophes, and boldest Metaphors, are

founded upon the Fiction of a Person.

- Now gentle Gales Fanning their odoriferous IVings dispense Native Perfumes; and whifper whence they stole Those balmy Spoils-9.

2. The fecond Part of this lively Figure, is when we give a Voice to inanimate Things; and make Rocks, Woods, Rivers,

Buildings, &c. to express the Passions of rational Creatures.

As when the Walls and Pillars of a Temple are brought in trembling at, or inveighing against the daring Profanation of Blasphemy utter'd, of Sacrilege or Debauchery committed within their hallowed Bounds.

> She foul blafthemous Speeches forth did caft. And bitter Curses, horrible to tell; That ev'n the Temple wherein she was plac'd, Did quake to hear, and nigh afunder braft .

Gg4 Lither

Milton's Par. Loft, iv. 156, &c. " Spenier's Fairy Queen, ver. 11, 28.

Either frign'd Persons are represented so uttering the Refenuments of Mankind in express Terms; or his suppost they would cry out upon Occasion; or 'tis affirmed in restral that they do utter their Concern and Passon, but the Words are not let down. Of the first Kind, which is the most moving and fprightly, is that Representation of Tally & wherein he introduces Rome as a venerable Metron, the common Mother of all the Romans, in a pathetical Speech expotulating with Catiline, who then was engaged in a bloody and unnatural Conspiracy to destroy his native Country, and presfing him to depart and deliver her from her prefent terrible Apprehensions and Danger. There is an Excess of Pattern a Degree of Enthusiasm in this sublime Figures and therefore 'tis dangerous and ridiculous to use it, but when the Importance and Grandeur of the Subject requires such a noble Vehemence. A Man of Understanding will keep his boldek Flights within the Bounds of common Sense; and guide himself by the Rules of Probability and Decorum in his most adventurous Sallies of Imagination. It is very tender and moving when in Pasteral and mourning Poems, Rivers, Groves, and Mountains are brought in languithing for the Absence, or lamenting the Loss of some very valuable Person, that before frequented them and chear'd them with his Presence.

No more the mounting Links, while Daphne fings, Shall listening in mid Air suspend their Wings; No more the Nightingales repeat their Lays, Or bujht with Wender, bearken from the Sprays; No more the Streems their Murmurs shall forcear, A fiveeter Music than their cwn to hear; But tell the Reeds, and tell the vocal Shore, Fair Daphne's dead, and Mulic is no more! Her Fate is whifper'd by the gentle Breeze, And told in Sighs to all the trembling Trees; The trembling Trees in every Philin and IVood, Her Fate remurmur to the Silver Flood; The Silver Flood, so lately calm, appears Swell'd with new Paffirm, and o'erfines with Tears; The Winds and Trees and Floods her Death deplete, Daphne, our Grief! our Giory now no more!

POPE.

This



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This Figure animates all Nature; gratifies the Curiofity of Mankind with a constant Series and Succession of Wonders; raises and creates new Worlds and Ranks of rational Creatures, to be Monuments of the Poet's Wit, to espouse his Cause and speak his Passion. To discern how much Force and Sprightliness this Figure gives to a Sentence or Expression, we need but first set down that Line.

Aut conjurate descendens Dacus ab Istro ;

And then after it thus,

Aut conjuratus descendens Dacus ab Istro;

And so make a Comparison. In the Plain Way it is not above the humble Style of Phadrus; in the Figurative it rises up to the Lostiness and Majesty of Virgil.

S. 20. Change of Time is when Things done and past are described as now doing and present. This Form of Expression places the Thing to be represented in a strong and prevalent Light before us, and makes us Speciators rather than Hearers.

My Mother, with that curst Partaker of her Bed, My Royal Father's Head in Pieces chaves, As sturdy Woodmen fell a stately Oak: By Treason's Blow the Victor Hero falls To Woman's Rage, and Coward's Guilt a Victim. While thus the Lord of Greece expiring lies, No Pity touches any Breast but mine.

Here the *Princes* presents you with a mournful Scene of Agamemnon's Murder, and gives you a View of the Horrors of that guilty Night and bloody Supper. She moves every generous Breast to sympathize with her; to boil with Indignation against the treacherous and barbarous Murderers; and bleed with Compassion for the Royal Sufferer.

§. 21. Change of Persons has some Variety.— Tis most commonly when the Writer on a sudden breaks off his Relation, and addresses his Reader.

Again

Georg. ii. 497.
From the Elect. of Soph.

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This Figure, when we have it in Perfection, takes off the Tediousness of a long direct Narration; makes the Restor attentive, as if he saw the Place where the Thing was transacted; and raises his Passions as it he himself was in the Hurry

and Heat of the Action.

Tis of peculiar Grace and Advantage in the Defeription of Places: It leads the Reader pleafantly into them; heightens his Imagination; and to use a bold Expression, gives him the Delight of safe and easy Travelling in a fine Country. Sometimes for Variety's Sake, to smooth a harsh Expression, to pay Reverence to the Reader, or to avoid supposing that any thing may happen which is shootling or of dangerous Consequence, the duther appropriates and applies that to himself, which he designs for the Reader's Warning or Instruction. So Virgil of the mischievous Serpent in Calabria.

O! let not Sleep my closing Eyes incade In open Plains or in the fecret Shade; Wren he renewed in all the speckled Pride Of pompous Youth has east his Slough while:

Change of Perfins is common and very natural in cager Contetts and throng Paffers; when Adverturies breathe mutual Rage and Scorn; or a deferted Lover inveighs against the Perfuries, and aggravates the Barbarity of the guilty and treacherous Perfon.

Turnus in Virgil's enraged at the malicious Harangue of Drances, first finantly replies to him, and then turns his Discourse to King Latinus and his Council, then attacks Drances

again with Variety of fevere and fatyrical Language.

Dida, upon notice of the Departure of Æneas, distracted with Rage and Despair, first suriously talls upon him, then distainfully turning from him, speaks of him as an absent Person; after exclaims against the Crueity of Heaven and Earth; then reproaches and condemns hersels for her own Credulity and Weakness, and again with Scorn and cager Indignation turns her Speech to Æneas.

F., •

¹ That xv. 696, 894.



False as thou art, and more than false, for worn;
Not sprung from noble Blood, nor Goddessborn;
Why should I fawn; what have I worse to sear?
Did he once look, or lent a list ning Ear;
Sigh'd when I sobb'd, or shed one kindly Tear?
Nor Juno views my Wrongs with equal Eyes;
Faithless is Earth, and faithless are the Skies!
I sav'd the shipwreck'd Exilc on my Shore——
With needful Food his hungry Trojans sed:
I took the Traytor to my Throne and Bed.
Fool that I was!
But go; thy Flight no longer I detain:

What a Storm is here, and how inimitably painted!

Go, scek thy promis'd Kingdom thro' the Main x.

§. 22. Transition is of two Sorts;

1. The first is when a Speech is introduced abruptly, without express Notice given of it. As when Milton y gives an Account of our first Ancestors Evening Devotions.

Both turn'd, and under open Sky ador'a
The God that made both Sky, Air, Earth, and Heaven—
Thou also mad'st the Night,
Maker Omnipotent, and thou the Day!

Had it been introduced in a formal Manner,

Adam presents their joint Petition thus; O God! thou mad's both Sky, &c.

it had lost all its Sprightliness and Grace. After the Greek Poet 2 has finished the Narration of Hester putting to slight the Grecians, and vehemently urging his Trojans to pursue their Advantage, and forbear the Spoil of the Field till they had burned the Enemies Ships, without any Notice he immediately makes the Hero utter his own Passion in an impetuous Speech; wherein he threatens Disgrace and Death to any Man that should disobey his Orders, and neglect this promising Season of a compleat Victory. The Speech that breaks from a Warrior in the Speed of his glorious Success, in the

² Virg. Æn.
² Hom. Iliad, xv. ver. 38, &c.

full Prospect of Revenge upon his Enemies, and the final Peliverance of his Country and Kingdoms after a long and bloody War, comes rapid and resistless like a policied Socient of an Engine, and finkes the Reader with Surprise and Terror.

Leaving out the heavy Formality of, He faid, and, He rephil, is very graceful in Stories and Dialogues, renders the Relation clear and full, and the Repartee quick and lively.

Horace is extremely hopey in this Nort of Transform as indeed he is in every Decease of Turn, and Beam of

Language.

2. The formal Sort of Translation is when a Price charter leaves the Skipert he is know, and pales on to anise from which it forms very deferent at first lieux has been a South and Connection with it, and ferves to the frate and many it.

Herace in the thirteenth Car of the fecond Book gives us a very lively Account of the Danger he was in of being dethroyed by the Fall of a Tree, and after makes were and moral Remarks on the Accident. Then he falles but with an Account of the other World, upon which he was in your entering; and beautifully expatiates upon the Praces of his illustrious Predecessors in Lynn Party; who were beard with Pleasure and Wonder there, as they us'd to be in this H mid. In these Cases the Para does not disappoint his Reader of the Infruction and Pleafure he proposes, but multiplies and increates both; nor does he to much take him of troop the View of his Subject, as he gives him a delightful Prospect of it every way, and in the best Light. A Guide cannot be uid to millead the Traveller, who brings him fately and pleatantly to his Journey's End; and only takes him out of the common Road, to thew him a Palace or a Paradile, to entertain him with a Wonder or furprizing Curiofity.

§. 23. Sentence is an indexcitive or lively Remove made or famething very observable and agreeably purprising; which are tains nucle Sense in few Words.

Tis either direct and plain; as, in all the Affairs of the World for much Reputation is really the much Powers. Or indirect and diffused; as,

Againgt in Complement to river state.

This

^{*} Tellotion. * Milton's Par. Led, vi. 135. 130.

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This is a very dextrous and prevalent Way of bringing in a Sentence. You are entertained with a noble Reflection when you did not expect it; and pleasantly surprized and instructed without the Appearance and Formality of Art. Not to come down to useless Nicety and Distinction, a Sentence appears with most Beauty and Advantage when it is put into some of these following Forms.

1. When it is express'd in any way of Exclamation, but pe-

culiarly of Wonder or Indignation; as,

How advantageous it is to pass through Adversities to the Enjoyment of Prosperity *!

How sharper than a Serpent's Tooth it is to have a thankless

Child b !

2. When it is put into a moving Exposization, or pressing Interrogation.

Are these our Scepters? These our due Rewards?

And is it thus that Jove his plighted Laith regards ??

3. When the Sentence is delivered, and a Reason immediately added to support it. In a Government it is much better to be unmindful of good Services than bad: For a good Man only becomes more slow, when you take no Account of him; a bad Man more daring and insolent.

4. When a Sentence is made up of a short Relation, and a

clear and pertinent Remark upon it.

Messalina desir'd the Name of Matrimony (with her Adulterer Silius) purely for the Greatness of the Infamy; which is the last Pleasure of prostigate People.

And this is near akin to the Epiphonema, of which we shall

presently speak two or three Words.

Sentences must not stand aukward and bulky out of the Discourse, but be neatly interwoven and wrought into it.

They must be unaffeded and significant; and such as the Sub-

ject eafily suggests to a thoughtful and distinguishing Man.

Sentences are the Ornaments and Lights of a Discourse; and therefore as Lights and Shades are in a good Picture, so ought Sentences to be so exactly and judiciously mixt with the other Parts of the Discourse, that all together may make up one uniform Beauty, one regular and consummate Piece.

§. 24.

^{*} Pliny Panegyr. p. 125. E. I. Lip li 16 52.

b Shaketpear. Dry J. Vita. 1

d Sallutt, Bel. Jugurth, p. 61. Tacit. Annal. 11. . 9. /. 250.

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§. 24. Epiphonema is an Acclamation, containing a lively Remark placed at the End of a Discourse or Narration. So Milton, on the Obstinacy of the Rebel Angels, who were so infatuated that they would not submit, though they knew Almighty Power and Majesty came arm'd against them.

In heavenly Minds can such Perverseness dwell!

This Figure closes a Narration in a very advantageous and taking Manner, deeply impresses the Thing related upon the Memory of the Reader; and leaves him in a good Humour, well fatisfy'd and pleas'd with the Sense and Sagacity of his Author.



PART VI.

O F

DRAWING.

HOUGH fome may look upon Drawing as one of those Accomplishments that are rather ornamental than useful, yet so elegant and agreeable an Amusement for leifure Hours, as the Art of Drawing affords, should by no means be neglected in the Education of Youth; especially where any Genius or Inclination that Way is discovered in the Pupil. And I am far from being of Opinion that it is merely ornamental; for besides the great Use it is of to Painters, Engravers, Architects, Engineers, Gardeners, Cabinet-makers, Carvers, Embroiderers, Statuaries, Tapestry-Weavers, and many others concerned in Designing; how very useful and agreeable must it be to any one to be able on the Spot to take the Sketch of a fine Building, or a beautiful Prospect; of any curious Piece of Art. or uncommon Appearance in Nature! I shall therefore think a small Portion of my Time extremely well employed in giving you some short Rules for the Attainment of so much of this Art. as is proper for a Gentleman, or a Man of common Business; and in laying before you fome few Examples for your Entertainment and Improvement therein, so far as is necessary for one who does not intend to make the Art of Drawing his Employment.

LESSON I.

Of the proper Materials, and the Manner of using them.

THE first Thing necessary is to furnish yourself with proper Materials, such as Black Lead Pencils, Crayons of black, white, or red Chalk, Crow-quill Pens, a Rule and Compasses, Camel's-hair Pencils, and *Indian* Ink. Accustom yourself to hold your Pencil farther from the Point than you

do a Pen in Writing; which will give you a better Command of it, and contribute to render your Strokes more free and bold. The Use of your Pencil is to draw the first Sketches or Out-lines of your Piece, as any Stroke or Line that is amifs, may in this be more eafily rubb'd out than in any other thing; and when you have made your Sketch as correct as you can with the Pencil, you may then draw carefully the best Out-line you have got, with your Crow-quill Pen and * Ink; after which you may discharge your Pencil-lines by rubbing the Piece gently with the Crumb of stale Bread. Having thus got your Out-line clear, your next Work is to shade your Piece properly (for which I shall give you more particular Directions in another Leffon) either by drawing fine Strokes with your Pen where it requires to be shaded, or by washing it with your Hair Pencil and the Indian Ink. As to your Rule and Compasses, they are never, or very rarely, to be used, except in measuring the Proportions of your Figures after you have drawn them, to prove whether they are right or not; or in Houses, Fortifications, and other Pieces of Artichecture. See the Proportions of a Human Body, Lesson VII.

LESSON II.

Of drawing Lines, Squares, Circles, and other regular and irregular Figures.

AVING got all these Implements in readiness, your first Practice must be to draw strait and curve Lines, with Ease and Freedom, upwards and downwards, sideways to the right or lest, or in any Direction whatsoever. You must also learn to draw by Command of Hand, Squares, Circles, Ovals, and other Geometrical Figures; for as the Alphabet, or a Knowledge of the Letters, is an Introduction to Grammar; so is Geometry to Drawing. The Practice of drawing these simple Figures till you are Master of them will enable you to imitate, with greater Ease and Accuracy, many things both in Nature and Art. And here it will be proper that you take

The Ink made use of for this Purpose must not be common, but Indian Ink: which is much softer than the other, and does not run: By mixing it with Water it may be made of any Degree of Strength, and used in a Pen like common Ink.

take one Piece of Advice, and that is, never to be in a Hurry. When we walk flowly, we walk fecurely; but if we run, we are in Danger of stumbling or falling. Be sure therefore to make yourself perfectly Master of one Figure before you proceed to another; the Advantage, and even Necessity of this, will appear as you proceed. If you turn to the Plate which corresponds with this Lesson, you will find many Examples, all which I would have you imitate with great Care; for it is Practice more than Precepts that must teach you the Art of Drawing; and from time to time I will direct you. Two Observations more may be proper with regard to Drawing: One is, that the Pupil accustom himself to draw all his Figures very large, which is the only Way of acquiring a free bold Manner of defigning; the other is, that he practife Drawing till he has gained a tolerable Maftery of his Pencil, before he attempts to shadow any Figure or Object of any kind whatever.

LESSON III.

Of Light and Shade.

F TER you have made yourfelf in some measure perfect in drawing Out-lines, your next Endeavour must be to shade them properly. It is this which gives an Appearance of Substance, Shape, Distance, and Distinction, to whatever Bodies you endeavour to represent, whether animate or inanimate. Your best Rule for doing this, is to consider from what Point, and in what Direction the Light talls up in the Objects which you are delineating, and let all your Lights and Shades be plac'd according to that Direction throughout the whole Work. That Part of the Object must be lightest, which hath the Light most directly opposite to it; it the Light falls Sideways on your Picture, you must make that Side which is opposite to it lightest, and that Side which is furthed from it darkeft. If you are drawing the Figure of a Man, and the Light be placed above the Head, then the Top of the Head must be made lightest, the Shoulders next lightest, and the lower Parts darker by Degrees. That Part of the Object, whether in mak I Figures, or Drapery, or Buildings, that stands furthest out, must be made the lightest, because it comes nearest to the Light; and the Light loseth to much of Vol. I. Hh

its Brightness, by how much any Part of the Body bends laward, because these Parts that flick out, hinder the Laffe and full Begotness of the Hight from ifriking on took Pars that felt me. I have used to save that he know no better Rule for the Differentien of Lights and Shadows, than his Obfervations drawn from a Bunch of Grapes. Sames and Sixs. and a lother thinning Stuffs, have certain glaneing Reflections. exceeding bright, where the Light falls iltronger. The like is feen in Arabott. Prais pots, or any other gottering Metal. where you see a midden Brightness in the middle. Cotter of the Light, which didovers the thining Nature . Things. Official alfor that a fitting Light requires a firing Shade, a fainter Light a fainter Spade is and ibut in eq. 2. Ballance be proicy a throughout the Proce between the Lights and Shades. Those Parts which must appear round, require but one Stroke in thading, and that fometimes but very to the fuch Parts is should appear deep or hollow, require two Strokes across each other, or fametimes three, which was in the cient for the deepeft Shade. Take care allo to an economic Out-lives faint and finall in fach Parts as receive the living but where the Shades fall, your Orritine must be trong one bold. Begin your Shadings from the Populand proceed as wiswards, and use your utmost Endoavours both by Plastice in-Observation to learn how to vary the Stadings property, terms this confifts a great deal of the Beauty and Flegimes er Drawing. Another Thing to be observed as that est a man Sight is weaken'd by Dalances, to Objects 2 at commore or less centus'd or clear according to the Conserver hold in the Pieces. There that one very diffant a weak, cost, and corpused a those that are near and on the foremest discusse, clears throng, and accurately flauhid.

LESSON IV.

O. Greweg Flowers, Frantis, Bl. Is., Septis, &c.

Would have you proceed now to make some Attempts of drawing Plawers. Finds, Band. Bends, and the like, in a sale as a will be a more pleasing langle ment; but as I took it as called Talle their the drawing of Hards and Feet and other. Pures of the human Body, which requires out of note Caree but gener Lauchiels and nicer Judgment. I



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have very few Rules or Instructions to give you upon this Head; the best Thing you can do is to furnish yourself with good Prints or Drawings by way of Examples, and with great Care and Exactness to copy them; a few such are here laid before you by way of Specimen, which you will do well to beflow some Study and Pains upon before you proceed any farther. If it is the Figure of a Beast, begin with the Forehead, and draw the Nose, the upper and under Jaw, and stop at the Throat. Then go to the Top of the Head and form the Ears, Neck, Back, and continue the Line till you have given the full Shape of the Buttock. Then form the Breatt, and mark out the Legs and Feet and all the smaller Parts. And last of all finish it with the proper Shadows. It is not amis by way of Ornament to give a small Sketch of Landskip, and let it be fuitable and natural to the Place or Country of the Much the fame may be faid with re-Beaft you draw. gard to Birds.

LESSON V.

Of drawing Eyes, Ears, Legs, Arms, Hands, Feet, &c.

A S to the drawing of Eyes and Ears, Legs and Arms, you will have very little more to do than to copy carefully the Examples which are given you in these Plates. But the Actions and Postures of the Hands are so many and various, that no certain Rules can be given for drawing them, that will universally hold good. Yet as the Hands and Feet are difficult Members to draw, it is very necessary, and well worth while, to bestow some Time and Pains about them. carefully imitating their various Postures and Actions, so as not only to avoid all Lameness and Impersection, but also to give them Life and Spirit. To arrive at this, great Care, Study, and Practice are requisite; particularly in imitating the best Prints or Drawings you can get of Hands and Feet, (fome pretty good Examples of which you have at the End of the Lessons in Plate 4, 5 and 6;) for as to the mechanical Rules of drawing them by Lines and Measures, they are not only perplexed and difficult, but also contrary to the Practice of the best Masters. One general Rule however may be given (which is univerfally to be observed in all Subjects) and that is, not to finish perfectly at first any fingle Part, but to Hh 2

sketch out faintly and with light Strokes of the Penci', it Shape and Proportion of the whole Hand, with the Achie and Turn of it; and after confidering carefully whether the first Sketch be perfect, and altering it wherever it is amid you may then proceed to the bending of the Joines, the Knuckles, the Veins, and other small Particulars, which when you have got the whole Shape and Proportion of the Hand or Foot, will not only be more easily, but alle mor perfectly design'd.

LESSON VI.

Of drawing Faces.

HE Head is usually divided into four equal Pare 1. From the Crown of the Head to the Ten of the Fore 2. From the Top of the Forchead to the F e-brows 3. From the Eve-brows to the Bottom of the Note. 4. From thence to the Bottom of the Chin. But it's Proportion i not constant : those Features in different Man Song ofte very different as to Length and Shape. In a well-proportione Face, however, they are nearly right. To direct you there fore in forming a perfect Face, your first Business is to draw a compleat Oval, in the Middle of which, from the Top t the Bottom, draw a perpendicular Line. Theor the Cente or Middle of this Line draw a diameter. Line, directly acrofrom one Side to the other of your Oval. On these tw Lines all the Features of your Face are to be place as tol lows. Divide your perpendicular Line into four co-al Parts the first must be allotted to the Hair of the Head, the secon is from the Top of the Forehead to the Top of the Nove be tween the Eve-brows; the third is from thence to the Betton of the Note, and the fourth includes the Lies and Chir-Your diameter Line, or the Breadth of the Face, is alway supposed to be the Length of five Eves, you must to except divide it into five equal Parts, and place the Eves upon it; as to leave exactly the Length of one Eve between them This is to be underflood only of a full theat Pace a for if a to us to either Side, then the Dalances are to be lefferful of that Sice which turns from you, less or more in Property to us Turning. The Top of the Paris to the possible to the Lychiews, at the End of the Clameter Line, and the Pet

DRAWING.

tom of it must be equal to the Bottom of the Nose. The Nostrils ought not to come out further than the Corner of the Eye in any Face, and the Middle of the Mouth must always be

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placed upon the perpendicular Line.

There is an ingenious Device which perhaps may somewhat affift you in forming the Face according to its different Turnings, and in placing the Features properly thereon. Procure a Piece of Box, or other smooth even-coloured Wood, and get it turned in the Shape of an Egg, which is pretty nearly the Shape of the human Head. Draw a Line upon it from Point to Point longways, as you fee in Fig. 1. Plate the 7th. Divide this Line into two equal Parts, and draw another through that Point, directly across it at right Angles, as you see in Fig. 2. The Features being drawn on these two Lines according to the Rules given you above, will produce a fore-right Face, as you fee in Fig. 3. Turn the Oval a small Matter from the left Hand to the right, and the Perpendicular will appear bent like a Bow or Arch, as you fee in Fig. 4. upon which the particular Features are to be drawn as in Fig. 5. always observing in what Manner the Nose projects beyond the Round of the Oval. The same must be obferv'd if you turn the Oval from the right to the left, as in Fig. 6. If you incline the Oval downwards and to the right, the cross Lines will appear as in Fig. 7. and the Features drawn on them as in Fig. 8. If you turn it upwards reclining to the left, the Lines of the Cross will appear as in Fig. 9, and a Face drawn on them, as in Fig. 10. A great Variety of Faces may be shewn on this Oval, according as you incline. recline, or turn it more or less: and a Side-Face may be drawn by means of a Perpendicular, as in Fig. 11. on which the Forehead, Nose, Mouth, and Chin are to be describ'd, as you see in Fig. 12.

These Rules being thoroughly understood, and imprinted in your Mind by frequent Practice, I doubt not but you will be able in a little Time to draw Faces from your own Fancy and Invention. And you will be better grounded in the Art than those who merely draw from Prints or Pictures, without understanding any thing of the Rules. But after this, I would have you carefully study and copy after the best Drawings or Pictures you can procure. In the mean time, those that are here before you are well worthy of your best Attention, and

most careful Imitation.

From the Crown of the Head to the Forehead, is the state

The Face begins at the Root of the lowest Hairs which he

upon the Ferenced, and ends at the Bottom of the Chin.

The Face is divided into three proportionable Parts; the first contains the Forehead, the fecond the Nofe, and the third the Mouth and Chin.

From the Chin to the Pit betwixt the Collar-Bones, are two

Lengths of a Nofe.

From the Pit betwirt the Collar-Bones to the Bottom of the Breast, one Face.

From the Bottom of the Breaft to the Navel, one Face.

From the Navel to the Genitors, one Pace.

From the Genito's to the upper Part of the Kann, 64.

The Knee contains half a Face-

From the lower Part of the Knee to the Ancie, two Faces,

From the Ancle to the Sale of the Foot, half a Face.

A Man when his Arms are stretch'd out, is, from the longest Finger of his right Hand, to the longest of his left, as broad as he is long.

From one Side of the Breaks to the other, two Faces.

The Bone of the Arm called Humerus, is the Length of two

Paces, from the Shoulder to the Elbow.

From the End of the Elbow to the Root of the little Finger, the Bone called Cubitus, with Part of the Hand, contains two Faces, in

From the Box of the Shoulder-Blade, to the Pit betwixt the

Collar Hones, one Face.

If you would be fatisfied in the Measures of Breadth from the Extremity of one Finger to the other, so that this Breadth should be equal to the Length of the Body, you must observe that the Boxes of the Elbows, with the Humerus, and of the Numerus with the Shoulder-Blade, bear the Proportion of half a Face, when the Arms are stretch'd out.

The Sole of the Foot is the fixth Part of the Figure.

The Hand is the Length of the Face.

The Thumb contains a Note.

The Infide of the Arm, from the Place where the Muscle disappears, which makes the Breast, called the pectoral Muscle, to the Middle of the Arm, sour Noses.

From the Middle of the Arm to the Beginning of the Hand.

five Nofes.

The longest Toe is a Nose long.

The two utmost Parts of the Teats, and the Pit betwint the Collar-Bones of a Woman, make an equilateral Triangle.

For

For the Breadth of the Limbs, no precise Measures can be given; because the Measures themselves are changeable according to the Quality of the Persons; and according to the Movement of the Muscles.

LESSON VIII.

Of Drapery.

'N the Art of cloathing your Figures, or casting the Drapery properly and elegantly upon them, many Things are to be observed. 1. The Eye must never be in doubt of its Object, but the Shape and Proportion of the Part or Limb which the Drapery is supposed to cover, must appear; at least fo far as Art and Probability will permit; and this is fo material a Consideration, that many Artists draw first the naked Figure, and afterwards put the Draperics upon it. 2. The Drapery must not sit too close to the Parts of the Body; but let it feem to flow round, and as it were embrace them; yet so as that the Figure may be easy, and have a free Motion. 3. The Draperies which cover those Parts that are exposed to great Light, must not be so deeply shaded as to seem to pierce them; nor should those Members be cross'd by Folds that are too strong; lest, by the too great Darkness of their Shades the Members look as if they were broken. 4. The great Folds must be drawn first, and then stroked into lesser ones; and great Care must be taken that they do not cross one another improperly. 5. Folds in general should be large, and as few as possible. However they must be greater or less according to the Quantity and Quality of the Stuffs of which the Drapery is supposed to be made. The Quality of the Persons is also to be considered in the Drapery. If they are Magistrates, their Draperies ought to be large and ample; if Country Clowns or Slaves, they ought to be coarse and short; if Ladies or Nymphs, light and foft. 6. Suit the Garments to the Body, and make them bend with it, according as it stands in or out, firait or crooked; or as it bends one Way or another; and the closer the Garment sits to the Body, the narrower and fmaller must be the Folds. 7. Folds well-imagin'd give much Spirit to any kind of Action; because their Motion implies a Motion in the acting Member, which feems to draw them

them forcibly, and makes them more or less flirring as the Action is more or less violent. 8. An artful Complication of Folds in a circular Manner, greatly helps the Effect of Form thortenings. 9. All Folds confift of two Shades and no more which you may turn with the Garment at Pleasure, shadow. ing the inner Side deeper, and the outer more faintly. 10. The Shades in Silk and fine Linen are very thick and small, requiring little Folds and a light Shadow. 11. Observe the Motion of the Air or Wind, in order to draw the loof Apparel all flying one Way; and draw that Part of the Garment that adheres closest to the Body, before you draw the loofer Part that flies off from it; left by drawing the loofe Part of the Garment first, you should mistake the Position of your Figure, and place it awry. 12. Rich Omaments, when judiciously and sparingly us'd, may sometimes contribute to the Beauty of Draperies. But fuch Ornaments are far below the Dignity of Angels or heavenly Figures; the Grandeur of whole Draperies ought rather to confult in the Boldness and Nobleness of the Folds, than in the Quality of the Stuff, or the Glitter of Ornaments. 13. Light and flying Draperies are proper only to Figures in great Motion, or in the Wind; but when in a calm Place, and free from violent Action, their Draperies should be large and flowing; that by their Contrast, and the Fall of the Folds, they may appear with Grace and Dignity. And thus much for Drapery, some few Examples of which you will find in Plate 10. I will now endeavour to give you a Taste of that, which, though it may be the most district, is certainly the most agreeable Part of this Study, A mean the Art of expressing the Passions.

LESSON IX.

On the Passions.

HE Passions, says Mr. Le Erun, are Motions of the Soul, either upon her pursuing what she judges to be for her good, or shunning what she thinks hurtful to her; and commonly, whatever causes Emotion of Passion in the Soul, creates also some Action in the Body. It is therefore necessary for a Painter to know which are the different Actions in the Body that express the several Passions of the Soul, and how to delineate them. But first of all, it may be proper you should

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should learn somewhat of the System of the Passions, and their Connection with and Relation to each other; I will therefore give you a short moral Account of them from Mr. Watts.

"An Object which is fuited to excite the Passions, says he, must have one of these three Properties, viz. it must be either, 1. Rare and uncommon; or, 2. Good and agreeable; or, 3. Evil and disagreeable: Or at least we must have some such Ideas and Apprehensions of it, before it can excite any

" Passion in us.

** Now if we will distinguish the chief Passions of our Na** ture according to their Objects, and confine ourselves to
** the common Words and Names whereby they are usually
** called, we may make three Ranks of them; which, for
** Distinction's fake, I shall name the first, second, and third

"Rank. The two first are Primitive, the third is Deri-

"The first Rank of Passions are these three; Admiration, Love, and Hatred.

"If the Object be rare and uncommon, it excites Admira-

" tion or Wonder.

"If we look on it as good, or any way agreeable to us, it may engage our *Love*; but if it be evil or disagreeable, it moves our *Hatred*.

"The fecond Rank of chief Passions are the divers Kinds of Love and Hatred, which are also distinguished by their

" Objects.

"If the Object appear valuable, it raises a Love which we call Esteem; if worthless, the Hatred is called Contempt.

"If the Object appear fit to receive Good from us, it is "Love of Benevolence, or Good-will: If it appear rather fit to receive Evil from us, the Hatred is called Malevolence, or

" Ill-will.

"If the Object appear pleafing, and fit to do us good, it raises the Love of Complacence, or Delight; if it be displeasing, and unfit to do us good, it excites a Displicence, or Dislike.

"From Love and Hatred in their different Kinds, (but chiefly from Complacence and Displicence) arise several more chief Passions, which may be called the third Rank, and

" which are also distinguished by their Objects.

" Note, In this Pair of Passions, and in all the third Rank, which is chiefly derived from them, the pleasing Object is more properly called Good, and the displeasing Object is

" more properly called Evil, than in the Paillons before men-

** If the Good be absent or unpossessed, and possible to be obtained, the Passion of Love grows up to D. D. is if the Evil may possibly come upon us, the Hatrei expectes its 6M in Averson, or Available. Though there may be also an Averson to some Evil from which we are sufficiently some.

"If there be any Prospect of obtaining the ablent Good, the Fallian excluding Higher buy if the abjent Earl be likely to

" come upon us, it takes the Pathon of Pearl.

Fear allo across from a present or expected Good in danger
of being lost: And there is a Hips of Security from time assent threatening Evil, or of Deliverance from some Est that is present.

"If the Good be actually obtained, or the Evil prevented, it excites My and Gudneyer, if the Good be actually left, or

• the Evil come upon use it causes Service or Grad-

Wheever helps us to attain this Good, or prevents the Evil, excites in us Graninale a Wholocier hierars our Mata riment of Good, or promotes the E.d., raise ear

There are very few, if any, of the Pallers for which
we have any Name, and which are usually taken notice
of in the Hart of Man, but what may be reduced to fome
or other of their general Health. And their I don't gretered
to by down this Influence and Arrangement of the European
of Man, as an emponic vertile of centain Thing, not open
the both Survey I can't know the various Veryks of a Health
as well as of the area of a residence when one is a Survey i don't find any of a constant meaning an earlier of better debice of any like?

Thus ter No. 10 and who the user is a concile, as well as for followed and of the plant in the property of the executive of the second of the executive of the

Compared to the external American en-Notice for the case been extremely managed a expression many of the Paintense and well cannot study any thing better than the fixamore within a masslett uses them there or when all constitutions will the blue which consequed to this for

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fon. However, I am of Opinion, with Mr. De Piles, that it is abfurd as well as impossible to pretend to give such particular Demonstrations of them as to six their Expression to certain Strokes, which the Painter should be obliged to make use of as essential and invariable Rules. This, says he, would be depriving the Art of that excellent Variety of Expression, which has no other Principle than Diversity of Imagination, the Number of which is infinite. The same Passion may be finely expressed several Ways, each yielding more or less Pleasure in proportion to the Painter's Understanding, and the

Spectator's Discernment.

Tho' every Part of the Face contributes toward expressing the Sentiments of the Heart, yet the Eve-brow, according to Mr. Le Brun, is the principal Scat of Expression, and where the Passions best make themselves known. 'Tis certain, says he, that the Pupil of the Eye, by its Fire and Motion, very well shews the Agitation of the Soul, but then it does not express the Kind or Nature of such an Agitation; whereas the Motion of the Eye-brow differs according as the Passions change their Nature. To express a simple Passion, the Motion is simple; to express a mixt Passion, the Motion is compound: if the Passion be gentle, the Motion is gentle; and if it be violent, the Motion is so too. We may observe farther, fays he, that there are two Kinds of Elevation in the Eyebrows. One, in which the Eve-brows rife up in the Middle: this Elevation expresses agreeable Sensations; and it is to be observed that then the Mouth rises at the Corners: Another, in which the Eye-brows rife up at the Ends, and fall in the Middle; this Motion denotes bodily Pain, and then the Mouth falls at the Corners. In Laughter all the Parts agree; for the Eye-brows, which fall toward the Middle of the Forehead, make the Nose, the Mouth, and the Eyes, follow the same Motion. In Weeping, the Motions are compound and contrary, for the Eye-brows fall toward the Nose and over the Eyes, and the Mouth rifes that Way. Tis to be observed also that the Mouth is the Part of the Face which more particularly expresses the Emotions of the Heart: For when the Heart complains, the Mouth falls at the Corners; when it is at Ease, the Corners of the Mouth are elevated; and when it has an Aversion, the Mouth shoots forward, and rifes in the Middle.

"The Head, fays Mr. De Piles, contributes more to the Expression of the Passions, than all the other Parts of the Body put together. Those separately can only show some

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se few Passions, but the Head expresses them all. Some a however, are more poculiarly expres'd by it than other; as as, Humility, by hanging it down; Arrogance, by lifting " it up; Languithment, by inclining it on one Side; and Obstinacy, when with a stiff and resolute Air it stands se upright, fixt, and fliff between the two Shoulders. The Head also belt shews our Supplications, Threats, Mildness, 44 Prides Love, Hatred, Joy, and Grief. The whole Face, " and every Feature, contributes fomething; especially the " Eyes, which, as Cicero fays, are the Windows of the Soul. "The Palfons, they more particularly discover are, Pleasure, "Languishing, Scorn, Severity, Mildness, Admiration, and Anger; to which one might add Joy and Grief, if they did to not proceed more particularly from the Eye-brows and Mouth; but when those two Passions fall in also with the " Language of the Eyes, the Harmony will be wonderful. 44 But tho' the Pattions of the Soul are most visible in the Lines and Features of the Face, they often require the Affiffance also of the other Parts of the Body. Without the Hands, 46 for Inflance, all Action is weak and imperfect; their Motions, which are almost infinite, create numberless Expres-" siones: It is by them that we defire, bope, promise, call, fond back; they are the Inflamments of Threatening, Prayer, Homer, and Praise; by them we approve, condemn, refuse, fear, ofk; express our Joy and Grief, our Doubts, faiding ther are the Language of the Dumb, that they Parts must be disposed for expressing the various impossible; nor can any exact Rules be given be income because the Task would be infinite, and bechuse every one must be guided in this by his own Genius, and the particular Turn of his own Studies."

All that I have farther to add on this Lesson, is to tell you, that the Examples of the Passions, which are here set before you for your Imitation, are taken from the best Masters, and endeavoured to be contrasted in such a Manner as to heighten and set off each other, and engage you more agreeably in the

Study of them.

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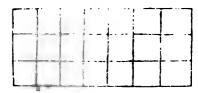
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LESSON X.

On drawing Landskips, Buildings, &c.

F all the Parts of Drawing, this is the most useful and necessary, as it is what every Man may have occasion for at one time or another. To be able, on the Spot, as I observed before, to take the Sketch of a fine Building, or a beautiful Prospect; of any curious Production of Art, or uncommon Appearance in Nature; is not only a very desirable Accomplishment, but a very agreeable Amusement. Rocks, Mountains, Fields, Woods, Rivers, Cataracts, Cities, Towns, Castles, Houses, Fortifications, Ruins, or whatsoever else may present itself to View, on our Journies or Travels, in our own or foreign Countries, may be thus brought home, and preserved for our future Use, either in Business or Conversation. On this Part therefore I would have you bestow somewhat more than ordinary Pains; and I have reserved it to the last, that it may dwell the longest upon your Mind.

All Drawing confifts in nicely measuring the Distances of each Part of your Piece by the Eye. In order to facilitate this, you are to imagine in your own Mind that the Piece you copy is divided into Squares. As for Example: Suppose or imagine a perpendicular and a horizontal Line crossing each other in the Center of the Picture you are drawing from: Then suppose also two such Lines crossing your own Copy. Observe in the Original what Parts of the Design those Lines interfect, and let them fall on the same Parts of the supposed Lines in your Copy: I say the supposed Lines, because the Engravers and others who copy with great Exactness, divide both the Copy and Original into many Squares, as in the Margin.



yet this is a Method I would have you endeavour to do without; as it will be apt to deceive the Learner, who will fancy himself a tolerable Proficient, till he comes to draw after Nature where these Helps are not to be had, when he will find himself miserably detective and utterly at a Lois.

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If fon are to draw a Landskip from Nature, take your Staties on a rising Ground, where you will have a large Horizon; and mark your Tablet into three Divisions, downwards from the Top to the Bottom, and divide in your own Mind the Landskip you are to take, into three Divisions also. turn your Face directly opposite to the Midst of the Horizon. Leeping your Body fixed, and draw what is directly before your Eyes, upon the middle Division of your Tablet; then turn your Head, but not your Body, to the left Hand, and delineate what you view there, joining it properly to what you had done before; lastly, do the same by what is to be seen on your right Hand, laying down every thing exactly, both with

refrect to Distance and Proportion.

The best Artists of late, in drawing their Landskips, make them shoot away one Part lower than another. Those who make their Landskips mount up higher and higher, as if they stood at the Bottom of a Hill to take the Prospect, commit a great Error: The best Way is to get upon a rising Ground, make the nearest Objects in your Piece the highest, and those that are farther off, to shoot away lower and lower till they come almost level with the Line of the Horizon, lessening every Thing proportionably to its Distance, and observing also to make your Objects fainter and less distinct, the farther they are removed from your Eve. Make all your Lights and Shades fall one Way; and let every Thing have its proper Motion, as Trees shaken by the Wind, the small Boughs bending more, and the large ones less; Water agitated by the Wind, and dashing against Ships or Boats; or falling from a Precipice upon Rocks at. 1 tones, and spirting them up again into the Air, and sprinkling all about; Clouds also in the Air, now gathered with the Winds, now violently condensed into Hail, Rain, and the like; always remembering that whatever Motions are caused by the Wind, must all be made to move the same Way, because the Wind can blow but one Way at once.

If you intend to make any confiderable Proficiency in this Part of Drawing, a Knowledge of Perspective is absolutely necessary: But for the common Uses which in all Probability you will have to make of Drawing, a careful Imitation of the Examples here laid before you, and other good Prints and Drawings which you may procure, together with frequent Trials from real Objects, such as Houles, Trees, Rocks, Ruins, and the like, will be sufficient; and in a little Pime enable you to make fuch Imitations or natural and artificial Olikers, as will fully answer the Ends which a Gentleman can proper in

learning the Art.

The End of the First Folume.

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